UNIVERSAL HISTORY,

ANCIENT AND MODERN;

Seevayu FROM Rajah 1808

THE EARLIEST RECORDS OF TIME,

TO THE

GENERAL PEACE OF 1802.

IN TWENTY-FIVE VOLUMES.

BY WILLIAM MAVOR, LL.D.

VICAR OF HURLEY IN BERKSHIRE, AND CHAPLAIN TO THE EARL OF DUMFRIES.

Factorum est copia nobis.

. . . .

Res gestæ regumque, ducumque, et tristia bella.

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UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

KINGDOM OF PONTUS.

THIS country, situated between the 41st and 43d degrees of north latitude, was bounded by the Euxine sea on the north, by Colchis on the east, by Armenia Minor on the south, and by the river Halys on the west. The air is reckoned very salubrious, the hills are generally covered with olive or cherry trees, the plains produce exuberant crops of grain, and an abundance of clear rivulets give an interesting variety to the rural scenery.

Pontus, according to ancient geographers, was divided into three parts, viz. Pontus Galaticus, so called because added to Galatia in the time of the Romans, extending from the Halys to the river Thermodon; Pontus Polemonaicus, so denominated from Polemon, king of this country, reaching from the Thermodon to the country of the Chalytes; and Pontus Cappadocius, which received its name from the circumstance of its bordering on Cappadocia, and extended from Pontus Polemonaicus to Colchis. The principal cities were Amisus, which Pharnaces made the metropolis of his kingdom; Amasia, the birthplace of Strabo, and in later ages an episcopal see; Cabira, memorable for the defeat of Mithridates by Lucullus, and afterward called Dios-

polis; Neocæsaria, formerly a place of great renown; Sebastia, in the vicinage of Mount Stella; Polemonium, built by Polemon, on whom Marc Antony bestowed the crown; Cerasus, built by the inhabitants of Sinope, in Paphlagonia; and Trebisond, a Greek city, situated in a peninsula, and surrounded by steep mountains.

The ancient inhabitants of Pontus are supposed to have been the descendants of Tubal; but in process of time they became blended with Cappadocians, Paphlagonians, and other foreign nations, beside several Greek colonies which settled in their country, and maintained their independence, till the time of Mithridates the Great. With respect to their arts and manufactures, all we know for certain is, that the inhabitants of Pontus Cappadocius were celebrated for their extraordinary skill in working iron and fabricating steel armour, whence they are said to have derived the name of Chalybes. The convenient situation of their harbours, and the great store of timber which grew on their coast, affords the presumption that they were a trading people. Their chief objects of adoration were Ceres, Jupiter, and Neptune, to whom they offered burnt sacrifices, pouring on the fire, oil, honey, milk, and wine. They also, occasionally, offered four white horses to Neptune, causing them to advance with a chariot into the sea, till they were drowned.

With respect to government, Pontus, and all the countries bordering on the Euxine seas, were successively reduced by the Medes and Persians, the latter of whom erected Pontus, which had hitherto been a part of Cappadocia, into a kingdom, and bestowed the sovereignty on one Artabazes,

bazes, of the royal family of Persia, during the reign of Darius, the son of Hystaspes. From this period the kings of Pontus were feudatories to the Persian empire till the reign of Ariobarzanes, who shook off the yoke, and greatly extended his dominions. In later ages, the kings of this country became very powerful, having added to their territories all Cappadocia, Paphlagonia, and great part of Colchis and Bithynia; insomuch, that Mithridates Eupator was enabled to hold out forty years successively against some of the greatest generals and bravest armies that Rome ever produced.

The first king of Pontus noticed by historians is Artabazes, who received his crown from the benevolence of Darius, but nothing occurs worthy notice respecting his reign.

By whom this prince was succeeded is uncertain, there being a chasm of near eighty years between his reign and that of Rhodobates, who is next mentioned by Laertius.

On the demise of Rhodobates, the crown devolved upon Mithridates, who attempted to shake off the Persian yoke, but was overthrown in battle by Artaxerxes Mnemon, and compelled to pay the customary tribute. He is said to have been taken prisoner by his treacherous ally, Clearchus, and to have been held in confinement till he advanced a large sum for his ransom. The latter part of his reign is passed over in silence.

Ariobarzanes, having received the governments of Lydia, Ionia, and Phrygia, employed the forces that were under his command against Artaxerxes; invaded the kingdom of Pontus; and added to it great part of the neighbouring provinces which had hitherto appertained to

the Persian empire. Upon the first news of this revolt, Artaxerxes sent out a body of troops, under the command of Autophrades, to recover his ancient territories; but Ariobarzanes received such important services from Agesilaus, and Timotheus the Athenian, that the Persians were compelled to retire, and he established himself in his new dignity, which he retained twenty-eight years; but was then taken off by assassination. This prince is said to have used his utmost efforts to effect a reconciliation between the Thebans and Lacedæmonians; and was held in such esteem by the Athenians, that they presented him with the freedom of their city, and granted both himself and his children whatever they required.

Alexander the Great, having invaded Persia about the time of Ariobarzanes's death, the kingdom of Pontus was seized by the Macedonians. However, Mithridates the Second recovered it in the reign of Antigonus, and is said to have lived to the advanced age of eighty-four years, of which twenty-six were spent in the government of his paternal dominions.

Of the four * succeeding princes little more is known than their names, excepting that the first added Cappadocia and Paphlagonia to the crown of Pontus; and the latter assisted the Rhodians with a considerable sum of money, to repair the losses they had sustained by an earthquake.

B. C. 182. Pharnaces, son of Mithridates the Fifth, had no sooner ascended the throne, than he took the city of Sinope by assault, and invaded the territories of Eumenes, king of

* These were Mithridates III.; Ariobarzanes II.; Mithridates IV.; and Mithridates V.

Pergamus.

Pergamus. These proceedings against the allies of the Roman republic occasioned a war, in which Pharnaces obtained some trifling advantages; but, being disappointed of succours from Syria, and finding his dominions invaded at once by the united forces of Rome, Pergamus and Cappadocia, he was compelled to make peace upon very disadvantageous terms. Pliny asserts, that the herb centaury derived its Greek name from this king, who is said to have spent much of his time in the study of botany.

On the death of Pharnaces, which happened shortly after the conclusion of peace, his son, Mithridates the Sixth, succeeded to the crown, and entered into a strict alliance with the Romans, for whom he afterward performed some important services against the Carthaginians, and against Aristonicus, who, upon the demise of Attalus, laid claim to the sovereignty of Pergamus. For these proofs of attachment the senate rewarded him with Phrygia Major, and honoured him with the epithet of "a friend of Rome." After a long and prosperous reign, he was treacherously murdered by some of his disaffected courtiers.

Mithridates the Seventh, son of the deceased prince, was but eleven years of age when he assumed the regal authority; yet, notwithstanding this circumstance, he commenced his reign with the most inhuman and unnatural acts of cruelty, causing his mother to be thrown into prison, where she fell a martyr to ill treatment, and exercising the utmost severity upon his other near relations. His tutors, dreading the effects of so unruly a temper, caused him to ride a wild unmanageable horse, B.C. 124.

and contrived various schemes for his destruction; but he was so well armed against every species of treachery, that they found it impossible to effect their purpose. In his youth he is said to have devoted a considerable portion of his time to the exercise of hunting, passing whole months in the open fields, and frequently reposing amidst the frozen snow, for the express purpose of inuring himself to hardship: and, when his enemies attempted to take him off by deleterious potions, he armed himself against them with such powerful antidotes and preservatives, that in his last stage of life the most exquisite poisons rather nourished than destroyed the constitution of his body.

Having arrived at years of maturity, he married his own sister Laodice, by whom he had a son named Pharnaces. But as ambition was his prevailing passion, and his thoughts aspired to nothing less than the absolute empire of Asia, he absented himself from the object of his incestuous love for the space of three years, in order to make a progress through all the kingdoms of the eastern continent, to observe the customs, laws, and manners of the inhabitants; to learn their different languages, and to take an estimate of their natural and political strength. During this journey his wife abandoned herself to the most nefarious practices, and actually brought forth a son by criminal conversation with one of her courtiers. She therefore thought it advisable to provide for her own safety by the death of Mithridates, and accordingly welcomed him on his return with a bowl of poison; but, her design being discovered, she was doomed to receive the just reward of her incontinence and disloyalty.

Shortly after this transaction, Mithridates resolved to reduce his ambitious projects to execution; accordingly he invaded the neighbouring kingdom of Paphlagonia, and divided it with his friend Nicomedes, of Bithynia. The Romans, having recently declared Paphlagonia a free state, sent ambassadors to the invader, enjoining him to withdraw his troops, and threatening him with war in case of refusal: but this embassy had so little effect, that Mithridates marched immediately into Galatia, which, though under the protection of the republic, was soon annexed to his former conquest. He then contrived the death of Ariarathes*, king of Cappadocia, and driving out Nicomedes, his former ally, who had married the queen dowager, in hope of ascending the throne, restored the kingdom to its lawful owner. However, he soon threw off the mask of dissimulation, and entered Cappadocia at the head of a formidable army. The young prince being well prepared for an engagement, Mithridates invited him to a conference, and in sight of both armies stabbed him to the heart. The Cappadocians were so overwhelmed with terror and astonishment at this cruel and unexpected treachery, that they threw down their arms, and submitted to the king of Pontus, who seized on all their fortresses, and bestowed the crown upon his son (a child of eight years old), whom he placed under the tutelage of Gordius, the murderer of Ariarathes. The Cappadocians soon shook off this tyrannical

* Ariarathes was brother-in-law to Mithridates, and a peculiar favourite with the Romans.

yoke,

yoke, and placed on the throne the brother of their late king, who had concealed himself in one of the Asiatic cities. But he was, after a short reign, expelled by Mithridates, and his unhappy people were again brought under subjection.

Upon the death of this prince, which happened soon after his expulsion, Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, prevailed on a youth of a comely and majestic appearance to present himself before the Roman senate, as a third son of Ariarathes, and, under that character, to sue for the crown of Cappadocia. Accordingly the conscript fathers promised to espouse his cause: but, the imposture being discovered, his pretensions were soon set aside, and Ariobarzanes was nominated to fill the vacant throne.

B. C. 91. The growing power of Mithridates excited such jealousy in the breasts of the Romans, that they sent L. Cornelius Sylla into Cappadocia, in order to thwart the measures which that prince was taking for securing the empire of all Asia. Accordingly, Sylla, with a small body of troops, defeated Gordius with great slaughter, and bestowed the sovereignty upon Ariobarzanes, according to the decree of the senate. However, the victorious general had no sooner returned to Rome, than Tigranes, king of Armenia, undertook to restore the son of Mithridates, and actually accomplished his design, without the loss of one man. About the same time Mithridates invaded the kingdom of Bithynia, and expelled the son of Nicomedes Philopator, bestowing the regal dignity upon his own brother Socrates, surnamed Chrestus or the Thrifty.

Fired

Fired with indignation at these proceedings, the Romans undertook the restoration of the deposed princes, and sent Manius Aquilius and Marcus Altinius into Asia, in quality of legates, together with a powerful body of troops, which soon reinstated Nicomedes on the throne of Bithynia, and Ariobarzanes on that of Cappadocia.

Notwithstanding these vigilant exertions on the part of Rome, Mithridates resolved to pursue his ambitious projects; and accordingly sent his son Ariarathes into Cappadocia, with an army that put to flight the combined forces of Altinius and Ariobarzanes, and again reduced that distracted kingdom. He also sent an embassy to Rome, to require the interference of the senate against Nicomedes, though himself had been the first aggressor. However, the Romans ordered his ambassadors to depart the city, and charged them to inform their master, that they would admit no more envoys from his court, till he had restored the kingdom of Cappadocia to its lawful owner, and concluded a peace with their faithful ally Nicomedes; and that on his refusal he should be accounted and treated as an enemy to the republic.

War being now declared between the Romans and the king of Pontus, the legates assembled all the troops they could raise in Bithynia, Cappadocia, Galatia, and Paphlagonia; and, with the consent of Cassius, governor of Asia, took the field. Having divided their army into several small bodies, Cassius encamped on the frontier of Bithynia; Aquilius possessed himself of the avenues leading from

B. C. 89.

from Bithynia into Pontus; and Q. Oppius secured the entrance into Cappadocia; while Minutius Rufus and C. Popilius lay with a fleet of three hundred sail at Byzantium, to preclude the enemy from entering the Euxine sea.

Meanwhile, Mithridates, having persuaded many of the neighbouring nations to enlist under his standard, boldly attacked the enemy, and gained some important advantages. The Bithynians, under the command of Nicomedes, were compelled to elude a general slaughter by flight; Aquilius was defeated, with the loss of ten thousand valiant men; and the Romans were soon driven out of Asia; while the conqueror over-ran Phrygia, Mysia, Caria, Lycia, and the adjacent countries; the inhabitants receiving him with the warmest demonstrations of joy, and honouring him with the appellations of father, deliverer, and sole lord of Asia. Ambassadors came to him from all parts, for the purpose of conciliating his friendship; and the Roman governors of Pamphylia, together with Manius Aquilius, were soon put in his hands by the treachery of the Laodiceans and Lesbians. Q. Oppius was loaded with chains, and subjected to public ridicule, while a number of lictors walked before him with their fasces, in derision of the Roman ostentation; and Aquilius was led about the country, either bound to an ass or coupled to a public malefactor; the king compelling him to proclaim to the crowds, who flocked to see him, that he was Manius Aquilius, the Roman legate. On his arrival at Pergamus, Mithridates caused him to be publicly scourged, then to be stretched upon the rack; and, lastly, ordered

ordered a quantity of melted gold to be poured down his throat, upbraiding him, by this act, with avarice, bribery, and corruption.

The signal success which had hitherto attended the king of Pontus, induced the free cities of Asia to throw open their gates, and, by voluntary submissions, elude the fate of those who had opposed his progress. Mithridates, having thus augmented his power, and amassed considerable treasures, resolved to take an ample, though diabolical revenge, on the Romans. Accordingly he dispatched private letters to the governors and magistrates of all the* chief towns in his newly acquired provinces, enjoining them, on pain of the most severe penalties, to massacre all Roman citizens, together with women and children of the Italian race, by a certain day, and to let their bodies remain unburied in the fields. This nefarious order being promulgated, and half the goods of the unhappy victims promised as a reward to the assassins, the gates of the several cities were shut at the appointed time, the king's orders were proclaimed, and a most horrid slaughter ensued. At Ephesus, where Mithridates then resided, the ill-fated Romans were dragged from the shelter of Diana's temple, and cruelly put to the sword. At Pergamus the inhabitants discharged showers of arrows upon them as they clung for protection to the statues in the temple of Esculapius; at Adramyttium great numbers were murdered in the water whilst attempting to swim, with their children on their backs, to the island of Lesbos;

B. C. 88.

* As most of the conquered provinces were either subject or allied to Rome, many Romans had settled in the principal cities, and were dispersed all over Asia.

and

and the Caunians, whom the Romans had recently delivered from a foreign yoke, and reinstated in their ancient privileges, excelled in cruelty all the rest, tormenting and butchering the harmless innocents under the eyes of their mothers, some of whom lost their senses, and others died of grief at a sight so shocking to human nature. The Trallians alone refused to embrue their hands in the blood of their unoffending guests; but, as the king's command was peremptory, and death was threatened to all who hesitated in obeying it, they hired a Paphlagonian to massacre the few Romans who resided among them. This inhuman wretch shut them all up in the temple of Concord, where he first cut off their hands as they embraced the sacred statues, and then literally cut them to pieces. Several Romans are said to have been saved on the floating islands of Lydia; but upwards of a hundred and fifty thousand perished on that day, which Tully justly calls a day of horror and confusion.

Elated with this unjustifiable revenge, and imagining himself firmly established in possession of his continental acquisitions, Mithridates embarked great part of his forces, in order to reduce the adjacent isles; but the Rhodians having sunk some of his vessels, and put the rest to flight, he retired to Pergamus, to settle the civil government of Asia, whilst Archelaus, commander in chief of his army, made a successful incursion into Greece; and the prince Ariarathes reduced the kingdom of Macedon. The generals whom he sent into other quarters were attended with equal success, so that he soon became master not only of Asia but of all

all Greece and the neighbouring islands, except Rhodes, as far as the Cyclades.

These successes, however, were at length checked by the Romans, who, hearing that Mithridates had projected an invasion of Italy, sent Lucius Sylla, a brave and experienced commander, into Greece, where Archelaus ruled with despotic sway. Accordingly Athens was reduced, after a short siege, and the royalists who had taken shelter in the castle were compelled, by want of water, to surrender at discretion; Lucullus, the lieutenant general, ventured out boldly, at the request of Sylla, in quest of naval auxiliaries, though the king's vessels overspread the whole sea; and an engagement took place, soon afterward, between the armies of Sylla and Archelaus, in which the latter was defeated, with the loss of a hundred and ten thousand men.

Such unexpected fortune on the part of Sylla excited the jealousy of his enemies at Rome, in consequence of which the senate dispatched Lucius Valerius Flaccus, with two legions, into Asia, under pretence of attacking Mithridates, but with private orders to fall upon Sylla if they found him disaffected to the republic. As Flaccus was but very imperfectly acquainted with the art of war, C. Fimbria, a popular senator, was nominated to attend him with the character of legate. Sylla, in the mean time, remained at Bœotia; but, on hearing of the measures taken against him, he quitted that province, and advanced by rapid marches into Thessaly, with a design to meet Flaccus. However, on receiving intelligence that Bœotia was over-run by a powerful army under Dorylaus, the

the king's chief favorite, he returned thither, and gained two signal victories, which effectually terminated the war in Greece. In the first engagement Dorylaus lost fifteen thousand men; and in the second the remaining part of his army, consisting of ninety thousand chosen troops, was entirely cut off, the Romans resolving to give no quarter to men who had treated their fellow citizens in Asia with such unexampled barbarity.

C. Fimbria having rebelled against Flaccus, and caused him to be put to death, assumed the command of all the Roman forces in Asia, reduced several towns of importance, overthrew the king's generals in several encounters, and besieged Mithridates himself so closely in Pitane, that he must have been unavoidably taken, had not Lucullus, who commanded the Roman navy, suffered him to make his escape.

B. C. 85. Whilst Fimbria was busied in reducing the Asiatic cities, and imposing heavy fines on such as presumed to make any opposition, Mithridates empowered Archelaus to make peace with Sylla, upon the most advantageous terms he could procure. After several conferences, Sylla consented to withdraw his troops, on condition that the king should voluntarily relinquish all his conquests, and content himself with his paternal dominions, which were confined within the boundaries of Pontus; that he should release, without ransom, all persons who had been taken captive during the war; that he should deliver up to Sylla eighty ships with their arms and ammunition, five hundred archers, and two thousand talents; and that he should refrain from molesting any persons or

cities

cities who had, in the course of the late hostilities, espoused the cause of the Romans. Mithridates was extremely unwilling to accede to such hard terms, but the urgency of his affairs admitted of no refusal, and he was therefore compelled to ratify the articles, after labouring nearly four years to obtain the absolute empire of Asia, at an immense expence, and loss of men.

Sylla, having thus terminated the first Mithridatic war, led his army against Fimbria, and required him to deliver up a command which he had assumed against the known laws of Rome. Fimbria obstinately refused to accede to this proposal; but, as he was unable to oppose Sylla by open force, he resolved to take him off by treachery. However, the plot being discovered, he eluded the punishment which his nefarious actions merited by an act of suicide, and his soldiers voluntarily enlisted beneath the banners of Sylla.

Shortly after this transaction, Sylla distributed ample rewards to all who had proved faithful to his republic; levied some heavy fines on the cities which had assisted Mithridates; and (leaving Lucullus with the character of quæstor, and Muræna as prætor) returned, with an immense treasure, to Italy.

Mithridates was no sooner delivered from the pursuit of a powerful and victorious enemy, than he resolved to reduce those nations which had revolted during the war. Accordingly, he led his army against the Colchi, but on his nominating his son, Mithridates, for their king, they laid down their arms, and returned to their duty. This circumstance suggesting the idea to Mithridates that his son's ambition had occasioned

the revolt, he caused him to be bound with golden fetters, and afterward sentenced him to death, notwithstanding his eminent services during the war. About the same time great preparations were made, under pretence of reducing the Bosphori; but, as it was secretly whispered that they were designed against the Romans, Muræna began to make some dreadful devastations in the country. Hereupon Mithridates sent an embassy to Rome, complaining of these violent proceedings, and the senate dispatched one Callidius to command Muræna to refrain from farther hostilities. However, he obstinately continued to mark his progress with fire and sword, and actually made an attempt upon Sinope, where the king resided, and the royal treasures were deposited. But in this project he failed, for Mithridates, taking the field at the head of a numerous army, drove him ignominiously from his camp, and chased his dispirited troops to the mountains that form the boundary of Phrygia. In consequence of this unexpected victory, Mithridates offered a solemn sacrifice to Jupiter the Powerful in War; and many of the Asiatic cities again placed themselves beneath his protection. Muræna was soon afterward compelled to draw off his troops, and evacuate the places which he had taken: but on his return to Rome he was honoured with a triumph, as if he had gained some advantageous victory.

The success which attended Mithridates in his expeditions against the Bosphori, together with the death of Sylla, induced him to attempt the recovery of those countries he had been compelled to cede by the peace with Rome. Accordingly

cordingly he invaded Paphlagonia, Bithynia, and the provinces of Asia, whilst Tigranes, king of Armenia, made an attack upon Cappadocia.

Upon the first report of these transactions, the senate dispatched the consul Lucullus into Asia, whilst Cotta, the other consul, was entrusted with a fleet to guard the Propontis and Bithynia. In the mean time, Mithridates assembled two very numerous armies, and a fleet of four hundred ships of thirty oars, beside many smaller vessels. He had also a third army in the vicinage of Heraclea, commanded by two generals of great experience.

Cotta, having heard that the king designed to march to Chalcedon, sent P. Rutilius, his legate, with a large body of troops, to observe his motions; but Rutilius being met on his march by Marius and Eumachus, he was slain, and the greatest part of his army cut in pieces. A similar misfortune having befallen several other Romans of distinction, Mithridates ordered his admiral to sail into the harbour and destroy the enemy's fleet, a service which was immediately performed without opposition, Cotta keeping close within the walls of the town, while some of his ships were burnt, others sunk, and the rest carried away in triumph. The loss of the Romans on this occasion was very considerable. Plutarch affirms, that four thousand Roman infantry were slain in the land engagement, and that few of the mariners were saved; and Memnon informs us, that the sea and the adjacent shores were covered with the dead bodies of the Romans, eight thousand being slain in the sea fight, and four thousand five hundred taken pri-

 soners;

soners; five thousand three hundred of the land forces also were either killed or made prisoners; whilst Mithridates lost in all but seven hundred and thirty men.

Elated by this success, Mithridates hastened to form the siege of Cyzicum. But Lucullus followed his steps so close, and harassed his troops with such vigorous and unexpected attacks, that the king was compelled to retire with a dreadful loss.

Fortune now declared entirely in favour of Lucullus, who, after receiving the most gratifying honours at Cyzicum, put to sea, and gained an important victory over the king's fleet near the island of Lemnos. He then steered his course toward Bithynia, which, together with Paphlagonia, submitted to his victorious arms; and, notwithstanding the united discouragements of frequent assaults, and scarcity of provision, he persuaded his valiant soldiers to pursue their march into the enemy's country. Accordingly he advanced with unshaken resolution till he gained the fertile plains of Pontus, where the wants of his followers were so amply supplied, that an ox was sold in the camp for a drachma, and every other article proportionably cheap.

Having refreshed his troops, and finding no army in the field under the banners of Mithridates, Lucullus divided his forces, and at the same time invested Eupatoria, Themiscyra, and Amisus, three towns of great importance. The first was soon taken; and the second, after a most obstinate resistance, was compelled to surrender for want of provisions; but, as the fortifications

fications of the third were deemed impregnable, and the garrison consisted entirely of chosen men, Lucullus resolved to avoid an useless effusion of blood, and reduce it by famine; though this determination excited the murmurs of the soldiery, who did not fail to charge their general with protracting the war, on purpose to be continued in command.

A report being spread that Mithridates was advancing, at the head of forty thousand foot, and four thousand horse, to the city of Cabiræ, Lucullus left two legions to continue the siege, and marched with the rest of his army to meet the king. Accordingly an engagement ensued, in which Mithridates proved victorious, the Romans being compelled to retire to the mountains with considerable loss. However, the next skirmish proved advantageous to Lucullus; and the king, hearing that two of his generals were defeated on the frontier of Cappadocia, resolved to break up his camp, and retire, before the enemy should obtain a reinforcement. This resolution was no sooner imparted to the Pontic nobles than they began privately to send away their most valuable effects; and the soldiers discovering their design, plundered the baggage, and put the escort to the sword. On this occasion Hermæus, a noted soothsayer, was trodden to death, and Dorylaus, one of the king's generals, was killed for the sake of a purple garment, which attracted the attention of the rioters.

Mithridates, being thus unexpectedly deserted by his army, retired with a small retinue to the court of Tigranes, king of Armenia, having escaped the pursuit of Lucullus by a well-timed

timed expedient,* and dispatched Bacchides to Pharnacia, with orders to put his sisters, wives, and concubines to death, to prevent their falling into the hands of the Romans.

Lucullus, finding the king had eluded his vigilance, led his army against the city of Cabira, which surrendered upon conditions. The example of this place was followed by most of the strong holds in Pontus, the governors flocking from all parts to make their peace with the conqueror. Heraclea, indeed, made a very obstinate resistance; but was at length taken by treachery, and given up to the plunder of the soldiers, and reduced to ashes. The city of Amisus was also taken by assault, and set on fire, but Lucullus repaired the damages which it sustained, and permitted the inhabitants to enjoy their houses and lands without farther molestation.

Pontus being thus reduced by the Romans, and the Chaldeans, Tibarenians, and inhabitants of Armenia Minor, having voluntarily surrendered all their fortresses, Lucullus sent to demand of Tigranes, that he should deliver up Mithridates, and, in case of refusal, threatened to declare war against Armenia. This embassy proving unsuccessful, a private conference was held by the two kings, in which it was determined that Tigranes should march against the Romans, and Mithridates return into Pontus, before they could enter Armenia. An engagement

* Mithridates was closely pursued, and at length overtaken by a company of Galatians; but, having caused a mule loaded with part of the royal treasures to be driven in amongst them, he effected his escape, whilst they were busily employed in the distribution of the spoil.

ment soon took place between Lucullus and the Armenians, in which the latter were defeated with considerable loss; but Mithridates, advancing to their assistance, encouraged his ally to levy a fresh army, and acted with such extraordinary vigilance, that many important places in Pontus were retaken; and M. Fabius, who had been appointed governor of the province, was at length overthrown in a pitched battle, and compelled to retire to the city of Cabira, where he was closely besieged. However, on the approach of Triarius, the Roman troops gained an important advantage, after which the siege was raised, and both armies retired into winter quarters. B. C. 70.

Early in the spring Mithridates took the field with a considerable reinforcement, and provoked Triarius to venture an engagement before the arrival of Lucullus, expecting by that means to drive the Romans effectually out of Pontus. Whilst they were preparing for battle, a violent storm came on, which soon compelled each party to seek shelter in their camp; but Triarius drew up his army in battle array the next morning, and an engagement ensued, in which seven thousand of the Romans were killed, and the rest compelled to elude the slaughter by a precipitate flight. Mithridates having received a dangerous wound in his thigh, during the conflict, from the weapon of a Roman centurion who served in his army, caused all his soldiers of that nation to retire to their tents, where they were inhumanly massacred.

Upon the first intelligence of this transaction, Lucullus advanced with all possible expedition toward the victor, but, a mutiny breaking out among

among his troops, he was compelled to remain inactive during the summer, and, soon afterward, was recalled by the senate.

B. C. 67. The command of the Roman army being now placed in the hands of Pompey, that famous general sent proposals of peace to Mithridates. The king of Pontus appeared willing to acquiesce, and accordingly sent an ambassador to treat of a pacification; but, on Pompey's requiring him to lay down his arms, and deliver up all who had revolted from the Romans during the war, he was compelled, by the * deserters, to swear that he would never form any alliance with Rome, nor give up to her disposal any person who had enlisted beneath the Pontic banners.

Pompey, perceiving that his proposals were rejected, advanced with a formidable army into Pontus; but as he could not provoke Mithridates to hazard a battle, he marched back into Armenia Minor, intending either to reduce that province, or compel the king to an engagement for its relief. Mithridates, suspecting the design of his enemy, followed him at some distance, and formed an encampment on a hill in Armenia, exactly opposite to the Romans. In this situation he reduced them to great distress, by cutting off their convoys, and harassing them with frequent skirmishes. But, Pompey having blocked up his camp, and cut off all communication with the country, he was at length compelled

* The demands of Pompey were no sooner known, than the numerous body of deserters who carried arms under Mithridates, made a great disturbance, and threatened to put the king himself to death, unless he vowed perpetual enmity against the Romans.

pelled to break through the Roman fortifications under cover of the night, and retreat with all possible expedition to Armenia Major.

Next morning Mithridates was pursued and overtaken by Pompey, who pitched his camp exactly opposite, and possessed himself of all the defiles and eminences which the Pontic troops were compelled to pass. About the dusk of the evening Mithridates pursued his march; but, on his entering a narrow valley environed by steep hills, the Roman trumpets unexpectedly sounded; showers of stones and arrows were discharged from the tops of the hills; and the army was thrown into the utmost confusion, being alike incapable of flight or resistance. When the moon rose, and discovered the full extent of their calamity, they fought with surprising valour and resolution; but the Romans rushed with such impetuosity from the eminences, and the extreme narrowness of the place was so unfavorable for their exertions, that ten thousand men were literally cut to pieces, and Mithridates himself escaped with great difficulty, at the head of eight hundred horse, by breaking through the Roman army.

The dread of pursuit having induced this body of cavalry to desert their unfortunate master, Mithridates travelled all night with no other attendants than his wife Hypsicratia, his daughter Dripetine, and a single officer. At day-break, however, he met with a body of mercenary horse, and three thousand foot, who escorted him to a strong castle on the borders of the two Armenias, whence he directed his course toward Colchis, and, having crossed the Euphrates, got safe into his own dominions.

The

The recent defeat of the Pontic army had made so unfavourable an impression on the minds of the people, and so effectually excited the ardour of the Romans, that Mithridates was soon necessitated to abandon his kingdom, and take refuge in the most barren parts of Scythia; whilst Pompey led his troops, in pursuit, through the barbarous nations in the vicinage of Caucasus, and achieved fresh victories, in spite of every obstacle and disadvantage.

At the expiration of two years Pompey returned, from his daring expedition, into Armenia Minor, and, after allowing some time for needful repose and refreshment, advanced into Pontus, where he reduced all the fortresses that were still garrisoned by the king's troops; possessed himself of immense treasure, in gold, silver, and other valuables; and, by perusing the royal manuscripts, became perfectly acquainted with the power and wealth of the kingdom.

Having completed the conquest of Pontus, he marched his troops into Syria, with a design to recover that kingdom, and to penetrate through Arabia as far as the Red Sea. But the unexpected appearance of Mithridates in Pontus, at the head of a powerful army, induced him to alter his plan.

Mithridates, who had hitherto lain concealed in the territories of a Scythian prince, was no sooner informed of Pompey's departure, than he resolved to recover his paternal crown, or perish in the attempt. Accordingly, having returned privately into Pontus, and summoned all his subjects who were capable of bearing arms to meet at a certain place, he made himself master of Chersonesus, Phanagorium, Theudosia, and

some

some other places of importance. However, his affairs were soon perplexed by a public rebellion, which was occasioned by the discontent of one of his officers, and threatened the most alarming consequences.

Four of his sons having been taken captive by the insurgents, and sent to Pompey, Mithridates sent an embassy to the princes of Scythia, and at the same time dispatched his daughters with the ambassadors to be bestowed in marriage upon such persons as voluntarily came forward upon this emergency. But the perfidious escort put the envoys to death, and delivered up the princesses to the Romans.

Mithridates, being thus deprived of his children, betrayed by his army, and deserted by those on whom he had placed the most implicit confidence, resolved to apply for succour to the European Gauls, who were then at war with the Romans; and accordingly began his march, designing to pass through Bosphorus Cimmerius, Scythia, and Pannonia, and then, with the assistance of the Gauls, invade Italy.

This romantic design was no sooner made public, than the army began to exhibit strong symptoms of a mutinous disposition, and the chief commanders exerted all their eloquence to dissuade the king from the prosecution of so ridiculous an enterprize. But the severity which Mithridates exercised upon those friendly advisers silenced all remonstrance, and the troops proceeded in silence to Bosphorus Cimmerius.

Whilst the army lay encamped at this place, Pharnaces, the king's favorite son, formed a powerful faction among the soldiers, and conci-

liated their esteem so successfully, by execrating the Italian expedition, and offering to lead them back into Pontus, that they encouraged him to assume the supreme authority, and at an appointed time proclaimed him king with loud and repeated acclamations. Upon the first intelligence of this alarming rebellion, Mithridates mounted his horse, and, accompanied by the body-guards, went to appease the tumult, but his attendants joining the rebels, and his horse being killed under him, he was compelled to hasten back to the city, whence he sent several persons to request a safe conduct for himself and his friends. This measure proving ineffectual, he endeavoured to excite his son's compassion, by reminding him, from the walls, of his parental affection, and expatiating on the pitiable condition to which he was now reduced, by a son whom he had ever preferred before all his other children. Finding that this pathetic speech was entirely disregarded, the wretched monarch raised his eyes to heaven, and, in an agony of tears, besought the gods that his unfeeling son might, on some future occasion, know the exquisite pangs which must rend a parent's heart, on seeing his warmest affection and solicitude requited with such unnatural ingratitude. He then expressed his grateful acknowledgments to those who had supported him to the last, and advised them to provide for their own safety by timely submission. But, for his own part, he solemnly declared he would never survive the rebellion of a son whom he had always cherished with peculiar affection.

Having thus addressed Pharnaces and the revolted army, he withdrew into the apartment of his

his women, where he drank poison, and administered the same to his wives, concubines, and favorite daughters. Upon the females the deleterious potion wrought its intended effect immediately; but Mithridates, having constantly used antidotes against such preparations, was compelled to have recourse to his sword. Neither did this serve his purpose, for the rebels, having stormed the town, and broken into the royal residence, found him weltering in his blood, but in his perfect senses. Pharnaces, hearing of his father's deplorable situation, sent some one to dress his wound, hoping to ingratiate himself with Pompey, by delivering him up to the Romans. In this, however, he was disappointed, for a Gaul, who served in the army, happening to enter the king's apartment, was struck with indescribable awe at the sight of fallen majesty, and seeing him struggle with the pangs of death, put an end to his agonies, and prevented those insults which must inevitably have followed his recovery.

Such was the end of Mithridates, after he had swayed the sceptre of Pontus sixty years. His talents were such as might have put him on a level with the best of princes, had he not sullied them with his vices. He subdued twenty-four nations, and could speak their languages as fluently as his own. He is said to have possessed a competent knowledge of physic, and to have written in the Greek tongue a learned treatise on botany. He is, however, rather to be admired for the equanimity with which he bore many of his misfortunes, than for his numerous victories or extraordinary learning.

Pharnaces being apprised of his father's death, ordered his body to be preserved in brine, that he might present it to Pompey, who had promised to return, after the reduction of Judea, and settle the public affairs to his satisfaction. A messenger was then sent to the Roman general, who, on hearing what had happened, was so impatient to impart his joy to the army, that he would not wait till a mount of turf could be raised, according to the custom of the camp; but having ordered his attendants to raise a kind of mount with their saddles, he from thence acquainted them that their powerful enemy had laid violent hands upon himself; and that his son, Pharnaces, was willing to receive the kingdom as a gift of the Roman people, or to resign it, if they deemed him unworthy of the crown. These unexpected tidings were received with repeated acclamations; every eye sparkled with triumphant delight, every heart bounded with exultation; and the day was solemnized with feasts and sacrifices, as if in the person of Mithridates all the enemies of Rome had perished. Whilst the soldiers were thus exulting over the termination of the Mithridatic war, Pompey dispatched a messenger with letters to Rome, on whose arrival the senate were so overjoyed, that twelve days were ordered to be set apart for thanksgiving, and a law was enacted, by virtue of which Pompey was to wear a purple gown at the scenical plays, and to appear at the Circensian sports in a triumphal robe and a crown of laurel.

On the return of Pompey from Jerusalem, his officers and soldiers flocked to see the body of Mithridates; but the general himself avoided the

the sight, and remarking that all enmity between the Romans and that illustrious prince was ended with his life, he caused the corpse to be buried in the most pompous manner, at his own expence.

Pharnaces, having received the crown of Bosphorus from the conqueror, together with the appellation of "an ally of the Romans," ordered all the commanders of the garrisons in Pontus to surrender their castles and treasures to Pompey, who thus acquired an immense treasure. In the city of Talaura, which Mithridates used to call his wardrobe, he found two thousand cups of onyx, set in gold; with such a profusion of gold and silver vessels, saddles, bridles, and other articles, enriched with precious stones, that the Roman commissaries were employed thirty days in making an inventory. In a fort situated among the mountains were delivered up the king's statue of massy gold, with his throne and sceptre, and the bed of Darius, the son of Hystaspes. And in another castle were found the statues of Mars, Apollo, and Minerva, of pure gold, with a pair of gaming tables of two precious stones, three feet broad, and four feet long, on which was a moon of gold, weighing thirty pounds, and nine salvers of massy gold, enriched with jewels to an inestimable value.*

The same spirit of ingratitude which excited Pharnaces to rebel against his father, propelled

* Some of these treasures had been transmitted to Mithridates from his illustrious ancestors; some had been deposited by the queen of Egypt in the hands of the Coans, who had delivered them to the king of Pontus, and a great part of them had been collected by Mithridates himself, who was particularly fond of sumptuous furniture.

 him

him to disoblige his benefactor, by directing his newly acquired power to unlawful purposes: for Pompey had no sooner returned to Rome, than the king fell unexpectedly upon the Phanagorenses, a people of Bosphorus, who had been recently declared free by the conqueror. These he besieged in their capital city, and compelled them to risk a battle which proved fatal to their liberty. Some years after, he determined to profit by the contentions which agitated the Roman republic, and accordingly recovered great part of his hereditary dominions, notwithstanding Domitius Calvinus was sent against him with the legions that were quartered in Asia. However, he was at length attacked by Julius Cæsar with such fury, that most of his troops were cut to pieces; his camp was given up to the plunder of the Romans; and the king himself was obliged to retreat with the utmost precipitation; while Cæsar restored to the allies of his republic all the places which had been recently wrested from him, and bestowed the crown of Bosphorus on Mithridates Pergamenus. Shortly after Cæsar's departure, Pharnaces made a violent effort for the recovery of Bosphorus, but his soldiers abandoning him on the first attack of Asander, who was still in possession of the kingdom, he was surrounded by the enemy, and received the just reward of his unnatural cruelty and ambition.

Upon the death of this unworthy prince, the kingdom of Pontus was again provinciated, and remained in that state till the second triumvirate, when Marc Antony bestowed it upon Darius, the son of Pharnaces, as a remuneration for his services during the civil war. Darius appears to

to have lived on the most amicable terms with Rome, but the transactions of his reign are not worthy our attention.

To Darius succeeded Polemon (the son of a Laodicean orator, called Zeno), who attended Antony in his expedition against the Parthians, and being taken prisoner in the battle fought by Statianus, was sent by the king of Media to conclude a peace with the Romans. In this embassy he acted with such propriety, that Antony added the crown of Armenia to his other possessions. After the battle of Actium, he was received into the favour of Augustus, though he had vigorously supported the cause of his competitor, and his future bravery entitled him to the appellation of "a friend of the Romans." His martial disposition, however, proved fatal to him, for on attacking the Aspungitani, a barbarous people, near the Palus Mæotis, who had refused to live in subjection to Rome, he was taken prisoner and put to death.

Polemon the Second, son of the deceased prince, was now raised to the sovereignty of Bosphorus and Pontus: but the emperor Caligula caused him to exchange the former for a portion of Cilicia, and Nero reduced the latter to the form of a province. He fell in love with Berenice, daughter to Agrippa, and, in order to obtain her hand, embraced the Jewish religion; but on her expressing her abhorrence of his debaucheries, and returning to her father, he renounced his new faith, and resumed the superstitions of his ancestors.

Polemon dying without issue, the kingdom of Pontus was dismembered, and added to the provinces of Galatia, Bithynia, and Cappadocia, except

cept the part called Pontus Polemoniacus, which retained the dignity of a separate province.

During the civil dissensions between Vespasian and Vitellius, one Anicetus took up arms for the restoration of the regal government; but his exertions were rendered abortive by the vigilance of the emperor; and Pontus continued to be a province to Rome till the time of Alexis Commenus, who erected a new empire, which included great part of this country, and was called the empire of Trapezond. From this period it was held by the Commeni for about two hundred and fifty years, at the expiration of which the emperor, David Commenus, was taken prisoner by Mahomet the Second, and his empire subjected to that of Constantinople.

KINGDOM OF EPIRUS.

EPIRUS, which has been already described * in the prefatory memoir relative to Ancient Greece, is supposed to have been first peopled by Dodanim, the grandson of Japhet; and was anciently divided into several petty kingdoms, which subsisted, independent of each other, till the Molossian princes subjected the whole country; and the inhabitants, who had been formerly called by various names, became blended under the common appellation of Epirots.

As the early records of this country are overcast with an impenetrable mist, and the most ancient kings are more spoken of by poets than historians, it appears advisable to commence the history of Epirus with the accession of Pyrrhus, the first of the Æacidæ who obtained the crown.

Pyrrhus, the son of Achilles, by the princess Deidamia, having distinguished himself in an extraordinary manner at the siege of Troy, killed Priam with his own hand, thrown Astyanax, the son of Hector, from a high tower, and sacrificed Polyxena on the tomb of his father, resolved to fix his residence at Epirus. Accordingly, he retired thither, with Andromache, and the myrmidons who had served, during the late war, under Achilles; and took such prudent measures for the establishment of his authority, that the natives, after an unsuccessful struggle, relinquished their liberty, and acknowledged

* See vol. iii. page xxv.

him as their sovereign. However, he did not long enjoy this acquisition of power, for he had no sooner settled the affairs of his new government, than he was assassinated by Orestes, in the temple of Delphi.

Molossus succeeded his father, but performed nothing worthy of notice. As he died without issue, the crown devolved on his brother Pielus, from whose accession little mention is made, by historians, of the Epirot princes, till the time of the Persian war, when Admetus swayed the sceptre, and performed some essential acts of friendship toward Themistocles, the Athenian.

Tharymbas, the successor of Admetus, is said to have applied with unwearied diligence to the study of polite literature; to have encouraged learning among his subjects; and to have formed many salutary laws; on which account Plutarch has numbered him among the ancient legislators.

Alcetas, who next appears in the history of this country, experienced many vicissitudes of fortune, being deposed by his own subjects; reinstated by Dionysius, tyrant of Syracuse; and threatened with a formidable invasion by Jason of Pheræ. However, he formed an advantageous alliance with the Athenians in the latter part of his reign, and died in peace.

Of Neoptolemus and Arybas, two brothers, who reigned conjunctly after the decease of Alcetas, but little is said, except that the former died shortly after his accession, and the latter was esteemed by the ancients, on account of the patronage he afforded to literary men and productions. At his demise, which happened in the eleventh year of his reign, his nephew, Alexander, was raised to the throne, by the interest of

Philip,

Philip, king of Macedon, and received the hand of the princess Cleopatra in marriage.

Alexander had scarcely assumed the diadem before he was invited into Italy, to assist the Tarentini against the Brutii and Lucani. Accordingly, having made a descent near the mouth of the river Sibarus, he reduced several cities belonging to the enemy, and rendered his name formidable to all the eastern parts of the country. This success fired his soul with military ardour, and induced him to believe that he should obtain as great a share of glory in Sicily, Italy, and Africa, as his nephew, Alexander the Great, was acquiring in Persia and other parts of Asia. In this, however, he was fatally mistaken, for, after he had obtained two decisive victories, his forces were defeated with great slaughter; himself was murdered by the treachery of his guards, and his dead body exposed to every ignominy that barbarous rage or malice could suggest. All the ancients speak of this prince as being no way inferior in bravery or conduct to the immortal hero of Macedon; but he had the misfortune to engage, in his first campaigns, with nations no less courageous than his own Epirots, and equally inured to the toils of war: hence he used to observe, that the country he designed to conquer was inhabited by men; whereas the provinces which fell beneath his nephew's arms were only peopled by women.

Æacides, the son of Arybus, and grandson of Alcetas, next obtained the crown of Epirus, and raised a powerful army for the relief of Olympias; who, at that time, was closely besieged in the city of Pydna. But this design gave such umbrage

umbrage to his soldiers, many of whom had been forced into the service, that they unanimously revolted from their allegiance; prevailed on their fellow citizens to banish the object of their resentment, and entered into an alliance with Cassander. However, a reconciliation was soon effected, and Æacidas was replaced on the throne of his ancestors.

Upon the death of this prince, which happened, shortly after his restoration, in a battle with Philip, his brother Alcetas received the sovereignty, and engaged in a war with the adherents of Cassander; which, after being carried on for some time with various success, terminated to the advantage of the Epirots. Alcetas, on the conclusion of peace, began to exercise the most wanton cruelties upon his subjects; but, the public indignation being effectually roused, he received the just reward of his nefarious conduct, and his children were all murdered in a general insurrection.

Pyrrhus, the son of Æacides, by Philippa, the daughter of Menon the Thessalian, succeeded to the throne of Alcetas, and reigned in perfect tranquillity till he was seventeen years of age; when, supposing his government firmly established, he quitted Epirus, in order to be present at the nuptials of a particular friend in Illyricum: but he was no sooner gone, than the Molossians broke out into an open revolt, chased his friends from court, seized on the royal treasures, and bestowed the diadem on Neoptolemus, his great uncle.

The unfortunate prince, being thus unexpectedly stripped of his dominions, retired to his brother-in-law, Demetrius, and signalized himself

self under that great commander upon several occasions. At length, being sent, as an hostage, into Egypt, he ingratiated himself so effectually with queen Berenice, that she gave him her daughter Antigone in marriage, and prevailed on Ptolemy to give him a sufficient body of forces for the recovery of his kingdom.

Pyrrhus, having recovered his paternal crown, and caused the usurper to be put to death for attempting to take him off by poison, marched into the neighbouring provinces, and performed those exploits which have already been narrated among the affairs of Macedon.

After being compelled by Lysimachus to abandon the kingdom which he had taken from his brother-in-law, he might have passed his days in uninterrupted harmony; but his restless temper and boundless ambition urged him on to fresh expeditions, and involved him in new difficulties. At the request of the Tarentines he embarked, with a numerous force, for Italy; and, after narrowly escaping shipwreck, landed at Tarentum, amidst the acclamations of the people. Here he took such measures for the suppression of voluptuousness, that the Tarentines soon perceived that he whom they had honoured as a deliverer was determined to become their master; but the vigilance of the king, and the known bravery of his Epirots, stifled the murmurs of disapprobation, and prevented a rebellion.

B. C. 280. Meanwhile P. Valerius Lævinus, the Roman consul, committed great depredations on the country of the Lucanians, who were in alliance with the Tarentines; and, having fortified one of their castles, waited in that

that neighbourhood for the arrival of Pyrrhus. The king, thinking it dishonourable to remain within the walls of a city, whilst his friends were exposed to the insults of the Romans, took the field with the troops brought from Epirus, some Tarentine recruits, and a small number of Italians. But, previously to the commencement of hostilities, he wrote to Lævinus, commanding him to disband his troops, and appeal to him as umpire between the Romans and Tarentines. Lævinus having sent a haughty replication to this epistle, both parties marched to the banks of the Siris, and encamped opposite to each other. Pyrrhus, being greatly surprised at the consul's entrenchments, and excellent disposition of his army, resolved to shut himself up in his entrenchments, in order to wait the arrival of some auxiliaries; but Lævinus exhorted his soldiers to attack the enemy immediately, and an engagement ensued, which, after a most obstinate resistance, terminated in the defeat of the Romans. However, Pyrrhus lost so many valiant officers and private men in this conflict, that he was heard to say, he was both conqueror and conquered; and that such another victory would reduce him to the necessity of returning to Epirus without a companion.

Anxious to reap all the advantage which this victory could afford, Pyrrhus rushed, like a resistless torrent, among the Roman allies, committing depredations on the country, and leading his intrepid Epirots even to the neighbourhood of Rome. These proceedings produced the desired effect; for several cities threw open their gates, and the greatest part of Campania was soon reduced. Having received a powerful

reinforce-

reinforcement from the Samnites, Messapians, and Lucanians, the victor marched, with all possible expediton, against Capua; but, the Romans having thrown some powerful succours into that city, he changed his design, and took the road to Naples. Lævinus, alarmed for the safety of that important place, followed the invaders, and harassed them so effectually, that their commander abandoned his second project, and took his route toward Rome. In this journey he made himself master of Fregellæ; and, marching through the country of the Hernici, sat down before Præneste, whence he beheld that city which, in later ages, became the mistress of the world. However, on receiving intelligence that T. Coruncanius had returned, with a victorious army, from Hetruria, he raised the siege, and retired, first to Campania, and afterward to Tarentum, where he terminated the campaign.

Whilst the king of Epirus remained at Tarentum, Cyneas, his prime minister, was sent with proposals of peace to the senate; but these proving unsuccessful, both parties began to make preparations for another campaign, and a general engagement ensued near Asculum; in which the Roman consul Decius was killed, and Pyrrhus dangerously wounded: but as victory remained doubtful, even at the termination of the battle, the Epirots retired to Tarentum, and the Romans took up their winter quarters at Apulia.

Early in the ensuing spring the hostile armies took the field; Pyrrhus, with a considerable reinforcement from Epirus, and the Romans under the command of C. Fabricius, and Q. Emilius Papus. Whilst they were waiting, near the fron-

tier of Tarentum, for a favorable opportunity to give battle, Nicias, the king's physician, dispatched a messenger to the Roman consuls, offering, for a certain reward, to dispatch his master by poison. Incensed at so infamous a proposal, the virtuous Romans immediately wrote to Pyrrhus; and, without discovering the traitor, cautioned him to avoid the perfidy of his attendants. Pyrrhus was so deeply affected by this act of generosity, that he immediately released, without ransom, all the prisoners he had taken; but the Romans, disdaining to accept a favour from an enemy, or a recompence for their kindness, would not receive them but by way of exchange; and accordingly sent back an equal number of Samnites and Tarentines.

Shortly after this transaction, ambassadors from the Syracusians, Leontines, and Agrigentines, arrived at the camp of Pyrrhus, earnestly requesting him to assist them in expelling the Carthaginians, and terminate the troubles which threatened their respective states with destruction. The king, who had long wished for an honourable pretence to quit Italy, readily acceded to their request; and, leaving a strong garrison in Tarentum, sailed for Sicily, with thirty thousand foot, and two thousand five hundred horse. The commencement of this expedition proved very successful; but a subsequent defection of the Sicilians, together with loud complaints from the Tarentines, induced him to return to Italy.

After sustaining a vigorous attack from the Carthaginian fleet, and suffering considerable loss by a tempest, Pyrrhus arrived at Tarentum; but, of all the forces he had taken to Sicily, he brought

brought back only three thousand horse, and twenty thousand foot. However, he soon contrived to raise a numerous body of recruits, and resolved to engage the Roman consul, Curius Dentatus, who had pitched his camp in the vicinage of Beneventum. Pyrrhus had conceived a hope of attacking the enemy by surprise; but the consul, receiving intelligence of his design, advanced with a strong detachment of legionaries to meet him; and, after putting many Epirots to the sword, drew up his army in a plain which was wide enough for his own troops, but too narrow for the Epirot phalanx. Notwithstanding the great disadvantage of this situation, Pyrrhus persisted in his resolution of hazarding an engagement, and accordingly commenced the attack with such resistless fury, that the Romans were actually driven back to their entrenchments: but, Curius having thrown his opponents into confusion, by assaulting their elephants with burning torches, the face of the battle was soon changed; twenty thousand Epirots being cut to pieces, and the Romans remaining sole masters of the field, with eight elephants, and twelve hundred prisoners.

Overwhelmed with confusion at this signal defeat, Pyrrhus retired, with a small body of cavalry, to Tarentum; and, leaving a strong garrison in the citadel, set sail for Epirus, with eight thousand foot, and five hundred horse, after having spent six years in Italy and Sicily, without obtaining any solid advantage.

To recruit his exhausted treasures, revive the drooping spirits of his subjects, and retrieve his own reputation, Pyrrhus, shortly after his return, resolved to lead his warlike troops against

Antigonus Gonatus. This project being immediately put in execution, a combined army of Epirots and Gauls marched into Macedon, where they ravaged the country, took several cities, and compelled Antigonus, after a signal defeat, to retire into Thessalonica, while the victorious Pyrrhus took possession of his kingdom.

From Macedon the warlike king of Epirus marched, with his two sons, Ptolemy and Helenus, into Peloponnesus, under colour of assisting Cleonymus, (who had been lately driven from his throne by an ambitious nephew) but, in reality, to make himself master of Greece. However, the obstinate resistance which he met with at Lacedæmon, obliged him to alter his resolution, and try his fortune in another quarter.

At this juncture Aristias, one of the principal citizens of Argos, invited the royal Epirot to espouse his cause against the party of Aristippus. Pyrrhus, unmindful of Antigonus, who had recovered great part of Macedon, immediately put his army in motion; but, in passing some narrow defiles, he was unexpectedly attacked, and lost a considerable number of Gauls and Molossians, together with his son Ptolemy. However, the Lacedæmonians paid dear for this assault, as the king suddenly faced about, and attacked their cavalry with such irresistible fury, that the major part of them were cut in pieces, and the rest compelled to save themselves by a disorderly flight.

Having thus taken an ample revenge for his loss, Pyrrhus continued his march toward Argos; and, having formed an encampment in the vicinity of that city, sent a herald to Antigonus, who had engaged to assist Aristippus, challenging

ing him to single combat: but that prince returned for answer, "that if Pyrrhus were tired of his existence, he might find means enough to terminate it."

Meanwhile, the citizens of Argos, seeing two foreign potentates ready to engage at their gates, and rightly surmising that the victor would reduce them to a state of vassallage, sent ambassadors to both parties, requesting them to withdraw their armies, and permit the inhabitants to compose their dissensions by themselves. Antigonus readily acceded to this proposal, and delivered up his son as a hostage of the rectitude of his intentions; but the king of Epirus resolved to make himself master of the city, and actually persuaded Aristias to open one of the gates to him at midnight. This plan being reduced to execution, a detachment of Pyrrhus's Gauls were conveyed into the market-place, without being discovered by the adverse party: but the noise which was made in attempting to introduce the elephants, spread an universal alarm, and threw the whole city into confusion. In the first moment of recollection the affrighted Argians sent to Antigonus, entreating him to advance instantly to their assistance. He accordingly marched up to the walls, and sent a chosen body of troops into the city, under the command of his son Alcioneus. Aræus, king of Lacedæmon, arrived at the same time, with a considerable force, and, joining the Macedonians, threw the Gaulish troops into complete disorder. Pyrrhus, indeed, hastened to their relief with a body of Molossians, but the darkness of the night, and the tumultuous noise of the soldiers, prevented his design.

The

The conflict raged with dreadful fury till break of day, when the streets appeared covered with dead bodies, and deluged with blood. Pyrrhus, perceiving that the city was filled with the enemy's troops, resolved on an immediate retreat; but, as he was rather apprehensive of some misfortune from the narrowness of the gates, he sent a message to his son Helenus, whom he had left with the main body of his army, desiring him to make a large breach in the wall, and prepare to cover his retreat, in case he should be overpowered by the foe. This message being totally misunderstood, Helenus selected the best of his troops, and made a vigorous exertion to enter the city, in order to rescue his father: but his soldiers were so thronged in the gate, that they wounded each other with their weapons; and Pyrrhus, who had hitherto fought with more than ordinary intrepidity, found it impossible to pass. He therefore pulled off his diadem, to prevent his being known, and resolved to sell his life as dear as possible. Whilst he was thus dealing out death and destruction with a furious hand, a common soldier of Argos wounded him with a javelin. The king, enflamed by the sight of his own blood, rushed upon the assailant with inexpressible rage; but the mother of the Argian, perceiving from the top of a house her son's imminent danger, threw down a tile upon Pyrrhus, which struck him so violently upon the head, that he staggered, and fell senseless to the ground. A Macedonian soldier, seeing this accident, and recognizing the king's features, dragged him into a porch, and cut off his head, which was immediately carried by Alcioneus to Antigonus. However, that prince

prince was so far from insulting the memory of his fallen competitor, that he covered the ensanguined head with his own garment, and caused it to be buried with suitable honours.

Thus died Pyrrhus, a prince equally famous for his military talents and excellent disposition. He seems to have proposed Alexander the Great to himself for a model, and is universally celebrated by the ancients for his profound knowledge in the art of war: but his inconstancy was so remarkable, that he scarcely tried his strength with one enemy, before he was anxious to engage another. Hence Antigonus used to compare him to a lucky gamester, who, instead of improving the advantages of fortune, lavishly wasted whatever he won.

Pyrrhus was succeeded by his son Alexander, who, shortly after his accession, reduced the kingdom of Macedon, but was afterward repulsed with considerable loss, and even chased from his paternal dominions. However, he soon regained the sovereignty of Epirus, by the assistance of the Acarnanians; and, having gained a signal victory over the Illyrians, ended his days in peace.

Ptolemy, the son and successor of Alexander, was a prince of promising expectations, but he died when he was scarcely out of his minority, and left the crown to his son Pyrrhus, who, after a short reign, was treacherously murdered by the Ambracians.

Deidamia, the daughter of Pyrrhus the Second, next ascended the throne; but the Epirots, disdaining to live beneath the government of a woman, caused her to be assassinated in the temple of Diana, whither she fled for shelter.

The

The wretch who embrued his hands in her blood was immediately seized with madness, and laid violent hands on himself, twelve days after the perpetration of his crime; and the Epirots are said to have been severely punished by the united scourges of discord, war, and famine. Upon the death of this princess, the royal family of Pyrrhus being extinct, the Epirots formed themselves into a republic, which was governed by annual magistrates, chosen in the general assembly of the nation. This form of government subsisted till Epirus sunk beneath the victorious sons of Rome, and became a province of that mighty empire.

COLCHIS,

COLCHIS, IBERIA, ALBANIA, BOSPORUS, MEDIA, BACTRIA, EDESSA, EMESA, ADIABENE, CHARACENE, ELYMAIS, COMAGENE, AND CHALCIDENE.

SECTION I.

COLCHIS.

THIS country* was bounded by Mount Caucasus on the north; by Iberia on the east; by Armenia and part of Pontus on the south; and by the Euxine Sea on the west. The whole kingdom was, in ancient times, blest with abundant fertility, and contained many excellent mines of gold, which gave rise to the celebrated fable of the golden fleece and the Argonautic expedition.

The inhabitants, who are supposed to have descended from the Egyptians, were governed, in very remote ages, by their own princes; seven of whom are mentioned in history, but nothing satisfactory can be related concerning their affairs, or the length of their respective reigns.

Mithridates the Great is said to have annexed this kingdom to his other important conquests, and to have governed it by prefects, one of whom was Moaphernes, great uncle to Strabo the geographer. During the Mithridatic war, the Colchians sided with the king of Pontus, and were governed by a king of their own, named

* Now Mingrelia.

Olthaces,

Olthaces, who was taken prisoner by the Romans, and succeeded by Aristarchus.

Whilst Cæsar was entertained by Cleopatra in Egypt, Colchis was invaded by Pharnaces II. king of Pontus; but this monarch was soon compelled to abandon his acquisition, and retire into the country of the Bosporans, where he was slain by Asander.

In the reign of the emperor Trajan, the Colchians voluntarily submitted to the Roman authority, and became subject to the prætors who governed Pontus and Bithynia; but as their country was never reduced to the form of a province, they probably were permitted to retain their ancient form of government.

SECT. II.

IBERIA.

IBERIA, now distinguished by the name of Georgia, was bounded on the north by Mount Caucasus; on the east by Albania; on the south by Armenia; and on the west by Colchis.

The ancient inhabitants, supposed by Josephus to have descended from Tubal, the brother of Gomer, were a very brave and warlike people, who maintained their independency against the utmost exertions of the Medes, Persians, and Macedonians; and even combated the Romans with astonishing fortitude and resolution. Those who inhabited the champaign country are represented as an industrious race, much addicted to agriculture, and bearing a strong resemblance in dress

dress and customs to the Medes and Armenians. But those who lived on the mountains were a wild and savage race, who might be aptly compared to the Scythians and Sarmatians.

Their government appears to have been monarchical, but no mention is made of their kings before Artoces, who assisted Mithridates the Great against the Romans. After the defeat of Mithridates, this prince assembled an army of seventy thousand men, who were designed to attack the Romans unawares, in case they refused to grant an honorable peace. This project, however, was discovered, and Pompey immediately penetrated into the very centre of Iberia, whilst Artoces was compelled to retire to the most remote parts of his dominions. In this posture of affairs ambassadors came to the Roman camp, and obtained a peace upon reasonable terms. But Artoces still kept his forces together, and determined to attack the invaders as they passed the river Pelorus. The Roman general, being apprized of this intention, prepared for battle, and an obstinate conflict ensued; but the Iberians were at length overthrown with considerable loss; nine thousand being killed upon the spot, and ten thousand taken prisoners, besides a prodigious number who were drowned in attempting to swim across the Pelorus.

Artoces, finding himself unable to cope with the victorious Romans, sent a bed, a table, and throne of massy gold to Pompey, earnestly suing for peace, which, after some consideration, was granted on terms no way derogatory to the honour of a gallant nation.

Of the other kings of Iberia nothing is related

by historians worthy of notice, till the time of Pharasmenes II. who visited Rome during the reign of the emperor Adrian, and was honoured with an equestrian statue in the temple of Belgium.

From this period to the division of the empire there is a profound silence among historians concerning the affairs of the Iberians. It is, however, very probable that they were governed by their own kings, who were tributary to Rome, for Iberia is not numbered by any writer among the provinces of the empire. It is also evident that they retained their regal form of government after their conversion to Christianity, as Gyrgenes, one of their kings, implored the assistance of the emperor Justin against Cavades, king of Persia, who had threatened him with a war in case he refused to adopt the religion of the Persians; and Zenobarzes, another of their kings, went to Constantinople, with his queen, his children, and several of his nobles, to receive the rite of baptism, during the reign of the emperor Justinian.

Iberia is at present subject to the king of Persia, and is distinguished by the name of Gurgistan, or the land of the Georgians.

SECT. III.

ALBANIA.

THE pleasant and fertile tract of country, anciently called Albania, but now known by the names of Schirwan and East Georgia, was bounded by Mount Caucasus on the north; by

by the Caspian Sea on the east; by Armenia on the south; and by Iberia on the west.

The ancient inhabitants are represented as a tall, comely, and vigorous race, equally famous for their courage and simplicity. Strabo affirms that they were totally unacquainted with weights, measures, and the use of money; that they possessed a very imperfect knowledge of numeration; and that trade was carried on among them entirely by exchange. Pliny tells us, that they paid a peculiar respect to old age; that they were of a remarkable fair complexion; and that the women were equally as stout and heroic as the men. Many conjectures have been formed respecting their origin; but it seems impossible to fix that point with accuracy.

In the most early ages the country was divided into several petty kingdoms; but, in process of time, one of the many tribes or nations prevailed over the others, and made themselves masters of the sovereignty. No mention, however, is made of their rulers till the time of Alexander the Great, to whom the king of Albania presented a dog of extraordinary size and fierceness.

The next king of this country noticed by historians is Oræses, who formed an alliance with Tigranes, the son of Tigranes the Great, and thereby involved himself in a war with the Romans. Cosis, the king's brother, took the command of the Albanians, and waited the approach of Pompey at the banks of the Cyrus, which he fortified with high pallisades. However, the Roman general, having led his army a great way about, and made a feint of returning to Armenia, crossed the river undiscovered, and

pursued his march till he heard that the enemy was advancing against him with sixty thousand foot and twelve thousand horse. Upon this intelligence, he concealed his legionaries among the bushes, and detached a body of cavalry with orders to attack the Albanians, and draw them into the ambuscade. This stratagem had the desired effect, the valiant Cosis being slain, and the Albanians defeated with dreadful slaughter. Oræses, after this misfortune, retired to Mount Caucasus, and thence sent ambassadors to treat of a peace, which Pompey (being anxious to turn his arms against Parthia) readily granted.

Zoberes, the son of Oræses, was next invested with the sovereignty; but no particulars are recorded concerning his reign, except that he imprudently engaged the forces of P. Canidius, one of Marc Antony's lieutenants, and was overthrown with considerable loss.

Pharasmenes, the next king of Albania mentioned in history, possessed the crown in the time of the emperor Adrian, who summoned him to appear at Rome, in order to answer for some depredations which his troops had committed in Armenia, Media, and Cappadocia. Pharasmenes refused to attend the citation, but, in hopes of appeasing the emperor, sent him some valuable presents, among which were several coats of cloth of gold. Adrian accepted the splendid garments, but with no other design than to insult the king of Albania, for he caused a certain number of criminals to be clad with them, and in that attire to fight the wild beasts in the public theatre. However, on the death of Adrian, Pharasmenes visited Rome, and was treated with every possible mark of distinction.

From

From this period the affairs of Albania are passed over in silence, till the reign of Justinian II, who is said to have reduced it by his general, Leontius.

SECT. IV.

BOSPORUS.

THIS ancient kingdom, including all the provinces that were subject to the Bosporan princes, was bounded on the north by the Tanais; on the east by Colchis; on the south by the Euxine Sea; and on the west by the Gulf of Carcinites; so that it comprised the Chersonesus Taurica in Europe, and the extensive tract which lies between the Euxine Sea and the Palus Mæstis in Asia.

The Bosporani appear to have lived under a monarchical government from the earliest ages; but no satisfactory account is given of their kings till the reign of Leucon II. who supplied the Athenians with a considerable quantity of corn in the time of a famine, and permitted them to carry on a free trade in any part of his dominions. In return for this generosity the Athenians presented him with the freedom of their city, and granted to his trading subjects the same privileges in Attica which their merchants enjoyed at Bosporus.

Satyrus II. the son of Leucon, next ascended the throne, and engaged in a sanguinary war with one of the neighbouring states. He retained the sovereignty only five years, and was

succeeded by his brother, Parisades, who performed nothing worthy of notice.

On the demise of Parisades, the crown devolved on Satyrus III. who, on his accession, found himself engaged in a war with his brother Eumelus; and, after a short reign of nine months, was killed at the siege of a Bosporan fortress.

Prytanis, the youngest brother of the deceased prince, now assumed the regal title, and the command of the army; but he was soon dethroned by Eumelus, and slain in battle. The conqueror had no sooner obtained the object of his ambition, than he exercised such severity upon the families of Satyrus and Prytanis, that his subjects began to murmur, and actually threatened his life. However, he eluded their vengeance, by promising to amend his conduct, and granting them several important privileges. During the remainder of his reign he applied himself zealously to the defence of his dominions, and would, in all probability, have brought most of the neighbouring nations under subjection, had he not been prevented by death. As he was returning from Scythia in a covered chariot, the horses taking fright, he threw himself out; but his sword being entangled in one of the wheels, he was hurried along with the carriage, and dashed to pieces.

Of Spartacus, Leucanor, and Euboitus, nothing is related worthy the reader's attention. Parisades III. being unable to pay an exorbitant tribute to the king of Scythia, and knowing his inability to resist so formidable an enemy, voluntarily resigned the crown of Bosporus to Mithridates the Great, after it had been possessed

by

by his ancestors for upwards of four hundred years.

During the last Mithridatic war the Bosporans revolted from Mithridates, and admitted Roman garrisons into several of their cities; but upon the death of that potentate the whole country was restored to his son Pharnaces, who enjoyed the friendship of the republic.

Pharnaces, having espoused the cause of his benefactor in the war between Pompey and Julius Cæsar, the latter marched against him, after the battle of Pharsalia, and compelled him to retire into his own dominions, where he was treacherously murdered by Asander, whom he had entrusted with the government during his absence.

Mithridates, the Pergamian, was now invested with the title of king of Bosporus, as a reward for the eminent services he had performed in Egypt. But, on his attempting to take possession of the throne, Alexander defeated and slew him in a pitched battle.

Upon the decease of Asander, one Scribonius laid claim to the crown, on pre ence of his relationship to Mithridates; but the emperor Augustus expelled him from the country, and bestowed the government of Bosporus on Polemon, the son of the famous Zeno, an orator of Laodicea. He is said to have engaged in several wars with the neighbouring barbarians, whom he frequently prevented from making incursions into the Roman territories, but he was at length taken prisoner, and put to death by the Aspungitani.

His youngest son, named also Polemon, succeeded to the throne of Bosporus, which he afterward

afterward exchanged for part of Cilicia. From this period no farther mention is made of the Bosporani till the time of Trajan, who received their king under his protection.

Lucian affirms that the Bosporans, in his time, were governed by one of their own princes named Eupator, but with respect to their affairs, from that time to the division of the empire, historians are unanimously silent.

SECT. V.

MEDIA.

THE affairs of Media, from the earliest records of time to its reduction by the Persians, have been already narrated in their * proper place. But that part of the country which lay between Mount Taurus and the Caspian Sea was, upon the downfall of the Persian monarchy, defended against the Macedonians, by Atropatus, and transmitted to his posterity under the name of Media Atropatia, or simply Atropatene.

The kings of Media, whose reigns have been noticed by historians, are Timarchus, Mithridates, Darius, and Artuasdes, the last of whom formed an alliance with Marc Antony, and was presented, by the triumvir with the head of Artabazus, king of Armenia, his most inveterate enemy. During the civil war between Antony and Augustus, Artuasdes zealously joined the former; and thus gave the Parthians an optunity of seizing on his dominions. After he

* Vide History of the Medes. Vol. viii. page 1.

had

had lived some time in Syria, he appealed to the clemency of Augustus, who readily received him into favour, and bestowed upon him the sovereignty of Armenia Minor; but the kingdom of Media remained for many years in subjection to the Parthians.

SECT. VI.

BACTRIA.

BACTRIA, now distinguished by the name of Chorassan, is described, by ancient geographers, as a large, fruitful, and populous country; having the river Oxus on the north; Asiatic Scythia on the east; Mount Paropamisus on the south; and Margiana on the west.

The inhabitants were a brave and martial people, constantly engaged in war, and enemies to every species of luxury. Their manners were totally unpolished; their morals loose; and some of their customs strongly tinged with cruelty—hence Pliny observes, that incontinency was not disreputable even among their women; and that their old people, when they had attained to a certain age, were exposed to be devoured by fierce mastiffs, which, being kept expressly for that purpose, were called *sepulchral* dogs.

Their government seems to have been monarchical from the earliest ages, but nothing is recorded concerning their kings till the time of Antiochus Theos, when Theodotus, governor of Bactria, assumed the regal title, and strengthened

ened himself so effectually in his new dignity, that the king of Syria could never afterward dispossess him.

He was succeeded by his son, named also Theodotus, who prudently formed an alliance with Arsaces, and considerably augmented his dominions, while Seleucus Callinicus and Antiochus Hierax were exhausting their strength against each other. At length, however, Theodotus was dethroned by his brother Euthydemus, and driven into banishment.

Euthydemus, having maintained an obstinate war with Antiochus the Great, and compelled him to abandon the hope of re-annexing Bactria to the Syrian crown, appointed his brother Menander for his successor. Menander accordingly ascended the throne, and made some important conquests beyond the river Hypanis; but his career of military glory was soon terminated by a violent fever, to the inexpressible grief of his subjects, who caused his revered ashes to be distributed among them, and erected magnificent monuments to his memory in all parts of the kingdom.

Demetrius, who next assumed the government, gave some convincing proofs of his prudence and bravery; for he not only retained the provinces which Menander had reduced, but also made several new acquisitions, and left the kingdom to his son, in a most flourishing condition.

Eucratides, the successor of Demetrius, founded the city of Eucratidia; and led his gallant forces into India, where he reduced all those provinces which had formerly sunk beneath the victorious arms of Alexander. On his return to Bactria,

Bactria, however, he was treacherously assassinated by his own son, to whom he had entrusted the public administration during his absence.

The vile parricide did not long enjoy the fruits of his wickedness; for, being invaded shortly afterward, both by the Scythians and Parthians, he was chased ignominiously from the kingdom, and slain in attempting to recover it. Upon his death the country was divided between the Parthians and Scythians, the latter of whom held it till the time of Ladislaus IV. king of Hungary, when they were, in their turn, driven out by the Huns.

SECT. VII.

EDESSA.

THE ancient city of Edessa, once famous for a magnificent temple of the Syrian goddess, and distinguished by the epithet of Hierapolis or the Holy City, was situated on the banks of the Scirtus, in Mesopotamia, between Mount Masius and the Euphrates.

This city, together with its fertile territory, was seized by one Abgarus, during the intestine broils which weakened the government of Syria, and erected into an independent state, under the name of the kingdom of Edessa. The *time*, however, when this event took place, is no where recorded; nor have historians given any farther account of the enterprising individual who first assumed the crown, than that he gained several decisive victories over the Syrians,

ans, and, at his decease, left his new dominions in a very flourishing condition.

Ariamnes, or Abgarus II.* succeeded his father in the sovereignty; reduced the province of Osroene; and entered into an alliance with Pompey against Tigranes the Great, king of Armenia. In the Parthian war he pretended to espouse the cause of Crassus, but, by maintaining a private correspondence with the enemy, he occasioned the heavy disaster which befel the Romans at Carrhæ. He left the crown to his son Uchanias, who performed nothing worthy of notice, but died in the peaceable possession of his paternal dignity, and was succeeded by Abgarus III. a prince highly celebrated by the ecclesiastic writers, on account of some letters which he is said to have written to our Saviour, and which have occasioned much controversy among the learned.

Abgarus IV. possessed the crown of Edessa during the reign of the emperor Claudius. He joined the governor of Syria, who had been ordered to place Meherdates on the throne of Parthia; but, according to the practice of his predecessors, held a private correspondence with the enemy, and occasioned the defeat of the Roman army.

The next king of Edessa noticed in history is, that Abgarus who sent a present of two hundred and fifty beautiful horses, sixty thousand javelins, and several complete suits of armour, to the emperor Trajan, who refused to accept of more than three breast-plates; but declared Abgarus "a friend of the Roman people."

Of Arbandes and Abgarus the Sixth nothing is

* Abgarus was a name common to the kings of Edessa.

is recorded, except that the former was peculiarly favoured by Trajan; and the latter rendered himself respectable by his exemplary conduct.

Another prince, of the name of Abgarus, reigned at Edessa in the time of the emperor Severus, who employed him in the wars which he waged in the East, and entertained him at Rome with extraordinary splendor. However, being afterward accused of corresponding with the enemies of the republic, he was thrown into confinement, and his kingdom reduced to the form of a Roman province.

SECT. VIII.

EMESA.

WHILST the affairs of Syria were disordered by the contentions of the Seleucidæ, an Arabian, named Sampsiceramus, seized on the city of Emesa, which was situated on the Orontes, between Apamea and Laodicea Cabiosa, and assuming the regal title, enjoyed the sovereignty without molestation.

Iamblichus succeeded his father on the throne of Emesa, and rendered some important services to Cicero, while that illustrious Roman resided at Cilicia, in quality of pro-consul. In the civil wars of Rome he sided first with Julius Cæsar against Pompey, and afterward with Antony against Octavius. But, after the memorable battle of Actium, Antony suspected his fidelity, and caused him to be put to death.

 Upon

Upon the demise of this unfortunate prince, his brother Alexander was raised to the throne, by favour of Marc Antony; but his reign was of short duration; for Octavius, having taken him prisoner, exhibited him to the Romans, among the other princes who adorned his triumph, and afterward sentenced him to death. However, his son, Iamblichus the Second, conciliated the esteem of the conqueror, and was restored to his paternal kingdom.

Nothing farther is recorded, in history, respecting the kings of Emesa, except that Sampsiceramus the Second held the government several years after Iamblichus; and was succeeded by his son Azizus, who became enamoured of Drusilla, the sister of Agrippa Minor, and embraced the Jewish religion, in order to obtain her hand.

What became of this little territory after the death of Azizus cannot now be determined; though it seems extremely probable that it was seized by the Arabians, as, after a chasm of several years, we find it possessed by the Ituræans.

SECT. IX.

ADIABENE.

ADIABENE, the principal province of Assyria, was bounded by Calachene on the north; by Apolloniatis on the east; by Sittacene on the south; and by the Tigris on the west. It was finely watered by the rivers Adiaba and Diaba, from which it is supposed to have derived

derived its name; and is celebrated by the ancients on account of its luxuriant fertility.

Of its erection into a kingdom it is only requisite to observe, that it resulted from the intestine commotions of the Seleucidæ, and was so prudently established as to resist the utmost subsequent exertions on the part of Syria.

The first king of Adiabene noticed by historians, appears to have reigned in the time of the Mithridatic war, and to have joined Tigranes against Lucullus, though our author has not given his name.

In the reign of the emperor Claudius, one Monobazus possessed the crown, and married his own sister Helena, by whom he had two sons, named Monobazus and Izates. He had several other children by different wives; but Izates, being a peculiar favorite, was destined for his successor. To appease the contentions, which so strong a partiality occasioned in his family, the king sent his favorite to be educated at the court of a neighbouring prince, called Abemerigus, who acted with the most affectionate kindness to his pupil, and gave him his own daughter, Samacha, in marriage. Here, also, the young prince contracted a friendship with one Ananias, who undertook to convince him of the absurdities of idolatry, and to instruct him in the Jewish religion.

On the demise of Monobazus, Helena assembled the chief nobles of the realm, and informed them that her beloved consort had, by his last will, nominated Izates for his successor; but that she had not thought it advisable to mention this circumstance to her son, till his appointment to the sovereignty should be ratified by the

 appro-

approbation of his subjects. The nobles, prostrating themselves before the queen, according to the custom of the country, expressed the warmest zeal for the accomplishment of the late king's desire; and Izates was, shortly afterward, placed on the throne, amidst universal acclamations.

The extraordinary success which had evidently attended Izates from the period of his conversion to Judaism, induced Monobazus and the other branches of the royal family to follow his example. This resolution gave such umbrage to the nobility, that a conspiracy was immediately formed against the sovereign, who had first introduced a new faith into the country; and letters were privately sent to Abias, king of Arabia, requesting him to invade Adiabene without delay. The Arabian accordingly assembled a numerous army, and marched into the territories of Izates, where, an engagement ensuing, the Adiabenians unanimously fled to their camp. However, Izates, having discovered the cause of this extraordinary behaviour, and caused the chief conspirators to be put to death, fell unexpectedly upon the enemy, and gained a decisive victory.

Such of the conspirators as escaped condign punishment, resolved to make another attempt for deposing the king, and accordingly invited Vologeses to their assistance. The Parthian monarch readily acceded to their request, and advanced against Izates with a very formidable army; but he was suddenly compelled to return, by an invasion of the Dahæ and Sacæ; and the pious prince of Adiabene passed the remainder of his days in undisturbed tranquillity.

Notwith-

Notwithstanding he had several children, Izates bequeathed the crown to his brother Monobazus, whose indefatigable care and unshaken fidelity had certainly merited an ample remuneration.

Monobazus sent the body of Izates, together with that of his mother Helena, to be deposited in a magnificent monument, near the city of Jerusalem. But of the affairs of this kingdom, nothing farther is recorded till the reign of Trajan, when one Mebarsapes governed the Adiabenians, and assisted Chosroes, king of the Persians, against Rome. On the termination of that war, Mebarsapes was chased from the throne, and compelled to elude the vengeance of his enemies, by retiring to Arabia.

In the time of Sapor the Second, the Adiabenians were subject to the crown of Persia, and, having embraced the Christian religion, were treated with extraordinary cruelty.

SECT. X.

CHARACENE.

CHARACENE, the most southern part of Susiana, lying on the Persian Gulf, between the Eulæus and the Tigris, was seized by Pasines, the son of Sogdonacus, king of the neighbouring Arabs, during the troubles of Syria, and erected into a kingdom. Lucian distinguishes this prince by the name of Hyspasines, and

and affirms that he reigned over the Characeni and the neighbouring people. He died in the eighty-fifth year of his age.

The other kings of Characene mentioned in ancient history, are, Teracus, who attained to the venerable age of ninety-two years; and Artabazus the Seventh, who, according to Lucian, was driven from the throne by his own subjects, but afterward restored by the Parthians. From this period the affairs of the country are passed over in silence.

SECT. XI.

ELYMAIS.

ELYMAIS, a province of Persia, situated between the rivers Oroates and Eulæus, was anciently divided into three districts, viz. Gabiene, Mesabatene, and Carbiana, and contained several cities; among which the most famous were Seleucia, on the banks of the Hedypos; Sasviate, in the vicinage of Mount Casyrus; Badaca, on the Eulæus; and Elymais, celebrated for a magnificent temple of Diana.

The Elymæans were a powerful and warlike people, inured to every species of hardship, and capable of defending their liberty against a formidable enemy. Hence it appears, that they were never subjugated either by the Syro-Macedonian or Parthian monarchs.

The rise of this kingdom, according to the best authority, may be dated from the downfall of

of the Persian monarchy. Their kings are frequently mentioned in ancient history; but no author has acquainted us with their names. All, therefore, that can be asserted respecting them is, that they assisted Antiochus the Great in his war with Rome, but afterward cut him off, in defence of their temple. They are also said to have waged war, under their own king, with the Susians and Babylonians.

SECT. XII.

COMAGENE.

THIS little kingdom seems to have been seized by some of the princes of the Seleucian family during their intestine divisions; for it was subject to the crown of Syria in the reign of Antiochus the Great, and the names of those who afterward assumed the regal dignity are purely Syrian.

The first king of Comagene mentioned by historians, was Antiochus, who, in concert with the king of Media, opposed Pompey's march into Syria, after the defeat of Tigranes; but, being overthrown in battle, he made voluntary submissions, and was confirmed by the conqueror in possession of his new kingdom. In the civil war between Pompey and Julius Cæsar, he warmly espoused the cause of the former; he afterward assisted Pacorus, king of Parthia, whom Labienus had invited into Syria, and was, on that occasion, compelled to purchase a peace

peace of Marc Antony at the rate of three hundred talents. In the reign of Augustus, he caused a Roman ambassador to be assassinated, and was therefore condemned to expiate his crime by death.

Of Mithridates and Antiochus the Second, nothing satisfactory can be said, except that the first received the kingdom from Augustus, as a remuneration for his services against the queen of Egypt; and the other, being afterward permitted to ascend his father's throne, retained the government till the reign of Tiberius.

Upon the demise of Antiochus great disturbances arose between the nobles and the people, the former desiring to be governed by a Roman magistrate, and the latter demanding a king. Tiberius, in compliance with the request of the nobles, sent a prætor to Comagene. But Caligula restored the ancient form of government, and bestowed the crown upon Antiochus, the lawful heir, who gained a signal victory over the Cilicians; and performed some considerable services to Titus during the siege of Jerusalem; but, being afterward accused of holding a secret correspondence with the Parthians, he was deposed, by order of Vespasian, and his kingdom reduced to a Roman province.

SECTION

SECT. XIII.

CHALCIDENE.

THIS pleasant and fertile province was seized by Ptolemy, the son of Mennæus, during the contentions of the Seleucidæ, and by him erected into a separate kingdom. Upon the death of Antiochus Dionysius, king of Syria, Ptolemy attempted to reduce the province of Cœlo-Syria; but the inhabitants, dreading his cruel temper, chose rather to submit to Aretas, king of Arabia. He led his forces against Pompey, in order to oppose the progress of that victorious Roman in Syria; but he was totally defeated, taken prisoner, and compelled to purchase his life, by the payment of a thousand talents. After Aristobulus, king of Judea, had been poisoned, and the prince Alexander executed at Jerusalem, he sent his son Philippion to Ascalon, whither the widow and surviving children of Aristobulus had retired, to bring them all to Chalcis, proposing to marry one of the daughters, named Alexandria, and to maintain the others in his own kingdom. Philippion executed his commission; but, having become enamoured of Alexandria in the journey, he married her, and was sentenced to death for his presumption. Ptolemy then espoused the object of his affection, and, on her account, supported the pretensions of Antigonus, the youngest son of Aristobulus, to the utmost of his power. But, on that prince's entering Judea, he was overthrown

thrown by Herod; and this misfortune was immediately followed by Ptolemy's death.

Lysanias, the son and successor of Ptolemy, zealously espoused the cause of the Asmonean family, and promised an ample reward to the commander of the Parthian troops in Syria, provided he would put Antigonus in possession of the kingdom of Judea. However, his projects were cut short by the queen of Egypt, who accused him of having formed an alliance with the Parthians, and persuaded Marc Antony to deprive him of his kingdom and life.

PARTHIA.

PARTHIA.

From Arsaces to the Recovery of the Kingdom by the Persians.

THE tract of country anciently called Parthia, but now distinguished by the name of Erach, was bounded by Hyrcania on the north; by Aria on the east; by Carmania, the desert, on the south; and by Media on the west. It has been justly celebrated for the clearness and salubrity of its air; but, in consequence of the sterility of its soil, many of its inhabitants have, at different times, been compelled to migrate into other regions; and, upon the death of Alexander the Great, it was almost entirely neglected, none of that illustrious hero's commanders choosing, for some time, to accept the government.

The ancient Parthians were originally a tribe of Scythians, who, being expelled from the land of their nativity, took up their abode in this part of Asia, assuming a name expressive * of their condition, and giving the derivative appellation, Parthia, to their new settlement. They are universally described by historians as a strong and warlike people; accustomed, from their infancy, to the exercises of horsemanship and archery, and constantly stimulated, both by precept and example, to seek reputation in the most perilous enterprises. In martial discipline they were exceedingly strict, and in diet very abstemious:

* The name *Parthians*, in the old Scythian language, signifies *exiles*.

but

but they were totally neglectful of agriculture, trade, and navigation; and their morals were so dreadfully depraved, that they were not only polygamists in the most extensive sense, but the most shocking incest was habitually committed without punishment or disgrace.

Their religious principles were much the same with those of the Persians, which have been already noticed in the history of that people. They believed that all who died in battle enjoyed the most supreme felicity in a future life. And they acquired the reputation of unshaken fidelity toward their friends, by that punctilious regard which they always paid to the performance of any solemn engagement.

Their government was an absolute unlimited monarchy;—the monarch assuming the most pompous titles, and putting himself on a level with the gods, whilst his subjects groaned beneath accumulated oppressions, and were constantly treated as the meanest of slaves. Nor was this unseemly pride of the Parthian kings merely exercised on the inhabitants of their own dominions, but even foreign potentates were expected to address them in the language of adulation; and strangers, in order to obtain an audience, were obliged to kiss the threshold on first entering the palace, and to acknowledge their majesty with some peculiar offering.

B. C. 250. Arsaces *, the founder of the Parthian monarchy, having assumed the regal dignity in the time of Antiochus Theos,

* Ancient historians are much divided in their opinions respecting this personage; some imagining him to have been a native of Parthia, others affirming that he was a nobleman of Bactria, and a third class representing him as a prince of the Dahæ.

and fixed his residence at Hecatompolis, took such prudent measures for the preservation of his new dignity, as proved superior to the force of Syria; and laid the foundation of an empire, which afterward counterbalanced the overgrown power of the Romans. Seleucus Callinicus made a violent effort for the recovery of Parthia, but his army was overthrown in battle, and himself taken prisoner by the successful Arsaces, who also added Hyrcania and some adjacent provinces to his dominions, but was, at length, slain, in an expedition against the Cappadocians.

Arsaces the Second had no sooner ascended his father's throne, than he projected an invasion of Media. Accordingly, he made himself master of that country, whilst Antiochus the Great was engaged in a war with the Egyptians; but he was soon dispossessed of his acquisition, and compelled to retire into Hyrcania. Here he assembled a formidable army, with a design to check the progress of the Syrian monarch; but an accommodation taking place, hostilities were laid aside, and the Parthian consented to assist Antiochus in the reduction of some other revolted provinces.

On the demise of Arsaces, the government devolved upon his son, Priapatius: but nothing is recorded concerning him, except that he reigned fifteen years, and bequeathed the crown to his eldest son, Phraates, who subdued the Mardi, one of the most warlike nations of the East.

Phraates appears to have had a numerous progeny, but he left the kingdom to his brother Mithridates, on account of his extraordinary merit and qualifications. This prince, whose intrepid bravery, sweetness of disposition, and

 insatiable

insatiable thirst of glory, rendered him peculiarly dear to his warlike subjects, soon augmented his dominions, by the reduction of Bactria, Persia, Media, Elymais, and several other countries, and carried his victorious arms into India, even beyond the boundaries of Alexander's conquests. Demetrius Nicator, king of Syria, endeavoured to recover some of the provinces which Mithridates had subdued, but he was overthrown in battle, and taken prisoner. After this important victory, Mithridates made himself master of Babylonia and Mesopotamia; so that all the countries between the Euphrates and Mount Caucasus were subject to his authority; and most of the Asiatic princes were made tributary to his empire, either by conquest or voluntary submission. He also carefully examined the respective constitutions of the countries he brought in subjection; and, from his observations, composed a code of excellent laws for his own subjects. Hence the reign of Mithridates is regarded, by most authors, as the epoch of the Parthian grandeur; and his name is transmitted to posterity with all the honor that is due to a great warrior and an able legislator.

Mithridates, having paid the debt of nature in the thirty-seventh year of his reign, was succeeded by his son, Phraates the Second; who, on his accession, was attacked by Antiochus Sidetes, king of Syria, and deprived of all the provinces which had been recently annexed to his empire. At length, however, he had the good fortune to retrieve his affairs, and cut off his formidable enemy: but his triumph was of short duration; for, having excited a mutiny among some Scythian troops, by refusing to

pay them their arrears, and being deserted by the Greek mercenaries, who had been treated with unmerited cruelty, his kingdom was thrown into the utmost confusion, and himself slain by the rebels.

On the departure of the Scythians, Artabanus, the third son of Priapatius, took possession of the crown; but he was killed, a few days afterward, in an engagement with the Thogarians, and his son Pacorus succeeded to the empire. Nothing, however, has been recorded concerning his reign, except that he formed an alliance with the Romans.

Phraates the Second next ascended the throne of Parthia, and invaded Armenia, designing to expel Tigranes the Great, and confer the sovereignty on the son of that monarch, who had fled to Hecatompolis for shelter. However, on the interference of Pompey, he gave up this project, and renewed the alliance which his father had concluded with the republic. He held the government twelve years, and, at the expiration of that time, was murdered by his own sons, Orodes and Mithridates.

Orodes now took possession of the kingdom, but was soon dethroned by his brother Mithridates, who rendered himself so detestable to the Parthians by his cruelty, that he was in his turn expelled, and soon afterward put to death by the opposite party.

On the death of Mithridates, Orodes became sole master of the empire; but he did not long enjoy it in peace, being, soon after his restoration, engaged in a war with M. Licinius Crassus, which was attended with a vast effusion of blood, and proved extremely disastercus both to the

Parthians and the Romans. At length, however, after prodigies of valour had been repeatedly performed on either side, and the invaders had resolutely endured the fatigues attendant on their motions in a hostile and barren land, Crassus was overthrown with dreadful slaughter, his head sent to Orodes, and a ludicrous scene exhibited at Seleucia, in order to stamp his name with infamy; whilst his vanquished troops tamely surrendered their liberty to the insulting foe, or were put to the sword without mercy.

B. C. 50. Flushed with success, and impatient to make some farther conquests, the Parthian army crossed the Euphrates, under the command of an experienced officer, named Orsaces, and marched against the city of Antioch; but, on the approach of Cicero, they were compelled to raise the siege, and take up their winter quarters in Cyrrhestica, a northern province of Syria. Early in the following spring they again advanced to Antioch, and carried on their works for some time without molestation; but, being suddenly called to suppress a rebellion which had broken out in their own country, they were obliged to abandon their design; and thus Syria was delivered from the danger of sinking beneath the Parthian yoke.

Nothing of importance occurs, in the history of Parthia, from this period till the famous partition of the Roman empire between Antony, Augustus, and Lepidus, when the inhabitants of Syria, being grievously burdened by taxation, rose up in arms, and invited the Parthians to assist them in expelling their oppressors. Upon this invitation Pacorus, the son of Orodes, and Labienus, a Roman general of Pompey's party, passed

passed the Euphrates, at the head of a numerous army; and, dividing their forces, gained some important advantages in Syria, Phœnice, and Asia Minor. They did not, however, long enjoy the fruits of this success, for Ventidius, Marc Antony's lieutenant, arriving unexpectedly in Asia, overthrew the troops of Labienus, and compelled him to retire into Cilicia, where he was put to death. He also vanquished a Parthian lieutenant, who had seized the passes leading into Syria; and, at length, came to a decisive battle, in which the gallant Pacorus was slain, and the greatest part of his army put to the sword.

When Orodes was acquainted with this signal misfortune, he was so overwhelmed with grief, that for some days he abstained from food, and spoke in such a manner as strongly indicated a disordered understanding; for nothing was to be heard from him but the name of his beloved Pacorus, whose loss was indeed of the utmost prejudice to the interests of Parthia.

B. C. 36.

As soon as the first emotions of paternal sorrow had subsided, Orodes appointed his eldest son, Phraates, to succeed him on the throne, admitting him, at the same time, to a participation of the supreme authority. Phraates, whose vicious disposition formed a striking contrast to that of his deceased brother, had no sooner attained to this height of power, than he caused all his brothers by the daughter of Antiochus Eusebes to be put to death, because they were of a more illustrious descent than himself. As this nefarious action was warmly resented by Orodes, he attempted to dispatch him also, by giving him a potion of

 hemlock;

hemlock; but that proving ineffectual, he caused him to be stifled in his bed, and, shortly afterward, exercised the same dreadful cruelty upon the prime nobility, and the other branches of the royal family, not sparing his eldest son, lest the Parthians should place him on the throne.

To elude the vengeance of this barbarian, many of the Parthian nobles emigrated into Syria, where they placed themselves under the protection of Marc Antony, and earnestly entreated that illustrious general to invade their unhappy kingdom. Antony readily listened to this proposal, and actually led his troops into Media, with a design to reduce that country, and thence advance into the dominions of Phraates; but his army were so extremely fatigued by wearisome marches, and so frequently harassed by the enemy, that they were reduced to the most pitiable extremities, and narrowly escaped destruction. Some time after this expedition, Artavasdes, king of Media, offered to assist the triumvir in revenging his late losses: but this enterprize was set aside by the arts of the queen of Egypt; and Phraates, having defeated his enemy, Artavasdes, restored the crown of Media to Artaxias, who had been dethroned by Antony.

The Parthian monarch, being elated with his recent successes, began to exercise the most wanton cruelties upon his own subjects; in consequence of which the nobles entered into a conspiracy, and chased him from the country, conferring the sovereignty upon Tiridates, one of their own body. Early in the ensuing year, however, Phraates returned, at the head of a formidable army; and, having defeated his rival in a pitched battle, recovered his paternal inheritance.

ritance. Tiridates made another struggle for the crown, and compelled the tyrant again to withdraw; but, on the arrival of a powerful body of Scythians, whom his competitor had engaged to defend his territories, he fled to Rome, in order to crave the assistance of Augustus. Phraates was no sooner apprised of this journey, than he also sent ambassadors to Rome, to demand the unfortunate noble, and to sue for the release of his own son, who had been put into Augustus's hands by the rebels. Augustus received both parties with equal politeness; but, instead of delivering up Tiridates, he ordered him a suitable maintenance out of the royal treasury. However, he sent back to Phraates his son, on his promising to restore the Roman captives and standards which had been taken from Crassus and Antony.

Three years having elapsed since this transaction, and Phraates still delaying the performance of his word, Augustus marched in person to Syria, and struck such terror, by his near approach, into the tyrannical Parthian, that he immediately agreed to such terms as the emperor thought proper to prescribe; and gave four of his sons, with their wives and children, as hostages for the performance of the articles. These were all carried to Rome, where they resided many years; but a fifth son, named Phraatices, was educated at home, and appointed to succeed his father.

Some writers are inclined to suppose that, in this affair, Phraates acted rather from motives of policy than fear, and that he willingly yielded up his four sons to Augustus, because they, being all of an age to assume the government, excited his

his jealousy. But, if this were the case, he was sadly disappointed in his expectations, for Phraatices was no sooner of age, than his mother, Thermusa, hastened his accession by the death of her hateful consort.

Phraatices had scarcely assumed the diadem, when his subjects resolved to revenge the crime to which he had been accessary. Accordingly, they rose in arms, and, having chased him into exile, placed one Orodes, who was of the Arsacidan family, on the throne. This prince, however, exhibited so savage a disposition, and acted with such unbounded tyranny, that his reign was suddenly terminated by assassination.

Upon the death of Orodes the Second, ambassadors were dispatched to Rome, requesting Augustus to send one of the sons of Phraates to assume the Parthian government. Augustus cheerfully acceded to their request, and sent them Vonones, who was received with universal acclamations; but, on his discovering a great friendship toward the Romans, and affecting their dress and manners, the Parthians grew weary of him, and finally persuaded Artabanus, king of Media, to chase him from the throne. The unfortunate Vonones, being thus stripped of his dominions, retired first into Armenia, and afterward into Syria; where he lived for some time, under the protection of Creticus Silanus, governor of that province. Being afterward removed, by order of Germanicus, from Syria to Pompeiopolis, in Cilicia, he effected his escape; but was soon retaken, and put to death.

Meanwhile, Artabanus having exercised the most cruel tyranny in his new dominions, the Parthian nobles sent privately to Rome for Phraates,

Phraates, who had been delivered, by his father, as a hostage to Augustus. The emperor Tiberius was glad of so favourable an opportunity of humbling Artabanus, and accordingly dispatched Phraates to recover his paternal kingdom; but that prince had proceeded no farther than Syria, when a violent distemper put a period to his mortal existence. At the same time, the conspiracy being discovered, those who were most zealous for a revolution were either privately murdered, or so closely watched, that they could not take proper measures for the prosecution of their design. Tiberius, however, did not abandon the enterprize; but, having substituted Tiridates, another prince of the family of Arsaces, in the room of Phraates, and prevailed on Mithridates Iberus, and Pharasmenes, to draw the Parthian out of his own kingdom by an invasion of Armenia, he had soon the satisfaction of hearing that Artabanus was driven into exile, and that Tiridates was proclaimed king of Parthia.

The same jealousy of Rome which had enflamed the minds of the Parthians against their lawful prince Vonones, operated now to the disadvantage of Tiridates; for Lucius Vitellius, governor of Syria, had no sooner recrossed the Euphrates, than a spirit of discontent began to appear among the nobility, and, after some time, the majority of them resolved to recal the object of their late detestation. Artabanus was accordingly supplied with a formidable army from various parts; and Tiridates, deeming it imprudent to hazard an engagement, retired into Syria, leaving his rival to take possession of the crown.

It

It was not long, however, before new commotions were excited by the cruel and haughty behaviour of Artabanus; so that a fresh conspiracy was formed among the nobility, and the tyrannical king was again compelled to quit his dominions: but, by the kind interference of Izates, king of Adiabene, he was restored, after solemnly swearing to pardon all those who had taken up arms against him. From this time Artabanus governed with great moderation; and died, in the thirty-first year of his reign, universally beloved by his subjects.

A. D. 47. He was succeeded, according to Josephus, by his son Bardanes, who, unmindful of recent obligations, made war upon Izates, because that prince refused to take up arms against the Romans. However, this ingratitude was so warmly resented by the Parthian nobles, that they caused the aggressor to be assassinated, and bestowed the diadem on his brother.

A. D. 49. Gotarzes had no sooner obtained the sovereignty, than he began to exercise every species of cruelty upon his subjects; in consequence of which a private embassy was sent to Rome, entreating the emperor Claudius to send Meherdates, the grandson of Phraates, into Parthia. Claudius readily assented to this proposal, and an army was commissioned to place Meherdates on the throne of his ancestors; but this design was frustrated by the treachery of Abgarus, king of Edessa; and the unfortunate prince, being overthrown in battle, was taken prisoner, and treated in the most ignominious manner, by order of the brutal Gotarzes.

Shortly

Shortly after this event Gotarzes died, and was succeeded by one Vonones, governor of Media; but his reign seems to have been too short and inglorious for the animadversion of historians.

Upon the demise of Vonones, the government devolved on Vologeses, the son of Gotarzes. This prince invaded Armenia, in the beginning of his reign, with a powerful army, and bestowed the crown of that country upon his brother Tiridates. However, a distemper breaking out among his troops, he was soon compelled to relinquish his conquests, and Tiridates was driven from the Armenian throne by Domitius Corbulo. This affront induced Vologeses to turn his arms against the Romans; and he actually returned, with a numerous army, against Armenia, designing to expel the new king, and, at the same time, attempt the reduction of Syria. However, as Corbulo had taken every precaution against the execution of these plans, and as Vologeses was well aware of the inconveniencies that might result from such a war, it was at length concluded that Tiridates should receive the crown of Armenia as a gift from the emperor, and that the ancient alliance should be renewed between Rome and Parthia.

Artabanus the Third next ascended the Parthian throne, and projected an invasion of Armenia; but he died before it could be put in execution. He was succeeded by his son Pacorus, who entered into an alliance with Decebalus, king of the Daci, and maintained an amicable correspondence with the Romans. His reign is said to have been very long, but no other of his transactions are recorded in history.

Cosdroes,

Cosdroes, the son of Pacorus, invaded Armenia, in the beginning of his reign, and expelled Exadares, who had been placed on the throne of that country by the emperor Trajan. To revenge this insult, Trajan marched into the east, and appeared so unexpectedly in Armenia, that he recovered that kingdom almost without opposition; made himself master of the opulent country of Mesopotamia; and took up his quarters in Syria: whilst the senate bestowed the highest encomiums upon his valour, and honoured him with the surnames of Armenicus and Parthicus.

Early in the ensuing spring Trajan took the field; and, after a most obstinate conflict with the enemy, passed the Euphrates on a bridge of boats, and entered Assyria. From hence he pursued his route to Babylon and Ctesiphon, reducing, with incredible rapidity, countries that had never borne the Roman yoke, and planting his banners on the walls of the most considerable fortresses.

Whilst the emperor was thus gathering laurels in the heart of the enemy's country, Cosdroes marched into Mesopotamia, and gained some important advantages; but he was eventually overpowered, and compelled to retire into Hyrcania; whilst the conqueror assembled the principal lords of Parthia at Ctesiphon, and bestowed their crown on Parthanaspates, a prince of the Arsacidan family, who had evinced an extraordinary attachment to the Romans.

The Parthians, however, did not long continue tributary to Rome; for, on the death of Trajan, which happened shortly after, they recalled Cosdroes, and chased Parthanaspates from the throne.

throne. Adrian, who was then commander in chief of all the forces in the east, deemed it imprudent to engage in a new war with so brave a people, and contented himself with preserving the ancient limits of the empire, without any prospect of farther conquest.

Cosdroes was succeeded, after a very long reign, by his eldest son, Vologeses. This prince was alarmed, on his first accession, by an irruption of the Alani into Media; but he prevailed on them, after some time, to withdraw their forces, and return home. Immediately after their retreat, Vologeses invaded Armenia; and, having put all the Roman garrisons to the sword, marched, with little opposition, into Syria, even to the vicinage of Antioch. The news of these proceedings soon reached Rome, and a formidable army was immediately drawn out to check the invaders; but, after hostilities had been carried on for about four years, with various success, Vologeses consented to acknowledge the sovereignty of Rome, and a peace was soon afterward concluded between the two empires.

Upon the demise of the Parthian king, his nephew, Vologeses the Third, was raised to the vacant throne. Having incensed the emperor Severus, by siding with Niger, he was invaded by the former, and closely besieged in the city of Ctesiphon; which, after most gallant defence, and a prodigious effusion of blood on both sides, was taken by assault. All the king's treasures, together with his wives and children, fell into the conqueror's hands; but Vologeses effected his escape, and raised a body of forces, which, soon after Severus's retreat, recovered all his dominions, except Mesopotamia. However,

 the

the remainder of his reign was disturbed by intestine commotions, nor could his most strenuous exertions restore the empire to its former tranquility.

Artabanus, the son and successor of Vologeses, had scarcely established himself in the kingdom, when the emperor Caracalla, desirous of signalizing himself against the Parthians, sent an embassy, desiring his daughter in marriage. Artabanus received this proposal with the most lively joy, and treated the ambassadors with every possible mark of respect, supposing the projected union might be attended with a lasting peace between the empires. Some time after, Caracalla having sent a second embassy to acquaint the king that he was coming to solemnize the nuptials, Vologeses went out to meet him, with the chief of the Parthian nobility, all unarmed, and habited in splendid dresses: but this peaceable train no sooner approached the Roman troops, than they were attacked with the utmost fury, and Artabanus himself was compelled to elude destruction by a precipitate retreat. The base Caracalla, having, by this perfidious action, gained a considerable booty, transmitted an account of his exploit to the senate, and assumed the surname of Parthicus.

Artabanus, resolving to take vengeance on the Romans for this cruel outrage, crossed the Euphrates, at the head of a very formidable army, and entered Syria, marking his progress with slaughter and desolation: but Macrinus, having succeeded Caracalla in the empire, hastened to oppose the invaders with an army composed of many legions, and all the auxiliaries of the Asiatic states. When the adverse generals came within

within sight of each other, they rushed with mutual impetuosity to battle, and fought with such extraordinary fury, that night only parted them without any apparent advantage, though both retired, when darkness ended the conflict, crying victory, victory! However, on Macrinus's sending a herald to acquaint the incensed Parthian with the death of Caracalla, and to propose an alliance between the two empires, a peace was concluded, and the heroic combatants retired to their respective countries.

At this juncture, an ignoble, but courageous and enterprising Persian, named Artaxares, resolved to attempt the recovery of the sovereign power, which his countrymen had been deprived of, first by the Macedonians, and afterward by the Parthians. Accordingly, having raised a numerous body of adherents, he excited an open revolt, and ventured an engagement with Artabanus, at the head of all the Parthian forces. The battle fought on this occasion is said to have lasted three days, during which time both parties exhibited the most astonishing proofs of valour and intrepidity; but at length, the Parthians being completely routed, and their unfortunate king taken prisoner, Artaxares accomplished his great design of restoring the empire to the Persians, after they had been subject to the princes of Parthia for the space of four hundred and seventy-five years.

Artabanus was put to death, by order of the conqueror, shortly after his defeat. However, the royal family of Arsaces was not extinct, but continued to reign in Armenia till the time of the emperor Justinian.

NUMIDIANS.

NUMIDIA, comprehending Numidia Propria, or the country of the Massyli, and Mauritania Cæsariensis, or that of the Masæsyli, extended from thirty-four degrees five minutes to thirty-seven degrees north latitude, and from one degree fifteen minutes west to nine degrees sixteen minutes east of London; being bounded by the Mediterranean on the north; by the river Tusca on the east; by Gætulia on the south; and by the Mulucha, which separated it from Mauritania, on the west.

The first inhabitants of Numidia are supposed, by most authors, to have descended from Phut, the brother of Misraim; but some colonies of Phœnicians were planted among them even in the earliest ages; and the maritime parts of their country were possessed, for a considerable space of time, by the Carthaginians.

With respect to their religion, it appears, from the best authorities, that the principal objects of their adoration were the sun and moon; and that divine honours were occasionally paid to the deities of Greece and Phœnice.

Their form of government has not been satisfactorily described by historians; but it is probable that the inhabitants of the coast adopted that of Carthage, while those of the interior lived beneath an absolute monarchy.

Their

Their language, though now totally lost, was certainly distinct from the Phœnician and Carthaginian; and their characters were not very unlike those that constituted the Punic alphabet, as appears from the legends of several old Numidian coins.

The ancient Numidians were divided into tribes, cantons, or hordes, in the same manner as the Arabes Scenitæ. Their mapalia, or tents, were all of an oblong form, resembling the inverted bottom of a ship, and secured from the inclemency of the weather by a covering of hair-cloth. A number of these formed a Numidian encampment; and each horde, having consumed the produce of one fertile spot, removed, from time to time, in quest of sustenance for themselves and pasturage for their cattle, as is still practised by their descendants, the Bedouins. Some, however, resided in fixed habitations, made of hurdles, mud, straw, and other light materials, which were distinguished by the name of Magaria.

In their diet they were remarkably abstemious, living chiefly upon herbs, grain, pulse, and water. Their garments, like those of the Carthaginians, were loose, without sash or girdle. Their constitutions were rarely impaired by disease, and many of them attained to longevity.

As the Numidians, in general, were a rude and barbarous people, it would be ridiculous to expect any traces of arts or sciences among them. They were, however, eminent for their skill in horsemanship, hurling the javelin, and throwing darts, and seem to have possessed a competent share of knowledge in some branches of the military art.

The early history of Numidia has, for many ages, been buried in oblivion. It is probable, however, that Iarbus reigned here, as well as in Africa Propria, when Dido laid the foundation of Byrsa; and it appears, from good authority, that, in the time of Herodotus, the inhabitants of this country were called both Libyans and Numidians. Justin also intimates that, about this time, the Carthaginians obtained a victory over the Numidians, and shook off a tribute which had been exacted ever since Dido's arrival in Africa.

After the termination of the first Punic war, the Micatanian Numidians, with other African tribes, carried on a sanguinary conflict with the Carthaginians, till Hamilcar sent a strong detachment to punish the aggressors. The commandant of that detachment executed his orders with the most cruel severity; for he not only plundered the country without mercy, but sentenced all the inhabitants, whom he made prisoners, to the ignominious death of the cross—A circumstance which filled the survivors with such indignation, that both they and their descendants, ever afterward, bore an inveterate hatred to the sons of Carthage.

In the consulate of Sempronius Gracchus, and the younger Fabius, Syphax, king of the Massæsyli, formed an alliance with Rome, and obtained a signal victory over the Carthaginians; but, on the approach of Masinissa, prince of the Massyli, his forces were defeated with great slaughter, and himself compelled to retire into Mauritania.

Whilst Masinissa was assisting the Carthaginians, at the head of a Numidian army, in Spain, his

his father, Gala, paid the debt of nature; and his brother, Desalces, took possession of the Massylian throne. That prince dying also, soon after his accession, the sovereignty devolved on Capusa, his eldest son, whose reign was speedily terminated by the successful revolt of one Mezetulus, a person of the royal blood, but an implacable enemy to the family of Gala.

To support himself in his usurpation, Mezetulus espoused Hannibal's niece, then dowager of Desalces, and sent ambassadors to conclude a treaty of alliance with Syphax. However, he did not assume the regal title, but contented himself with possessing the supreme authority; whilst the prince Lacumaces enjoyed the insignia of royalty.

Meanwhile the warlike Masinissa, receiving intelligence of his father's death, his cousin's unhappy fate, and Mezetulus's usurpation, hastened to the court of Bocchar, king of Mauritania, and obtained a body of four thousand Moors to escort him to the confines of his paternal kingdom. The news of his approach spread with astonishing rapidity through the country, and the Numidians flocked from all parts to enlist beneath his patronage, till he was soon in a condition of giving battle to the usurper; and an engagement ensued, which terminated in the utter defeat of Lacumaces, and the recovery of the crown by the lawful heir. The conqueror used his fortune with becoming modesty; Lacumaces and Mezetulus were indulged with a free pardon, and the restitution of all their estates; and the government seemed to be fully established in safety and tranquility.

But Numidia was soon disturbed by new commotions.

motions. Syphax, alarmed by some private suggestions of Asdrubal, marched, at the head of a numerous army, to recover a district which had long been disputed between him and Gala; and fell upon the Massylians with such resistless fury, that their forces were soon dispersed, and their king driven from the throne. In this exigence Masinissa retired, with a small party of cavalry, to the summit of Mount Balbus, and from thence made nocturnal incursions into the Carthaginian territory, which lay contiguous to Numidia; ravaging the district with fire and sword, and enriching his companions with the spoil. To put a final stop to these depredations, Syphax offered an ample reward to any one who should take Masinissa, either dead or alive; and, after some time, sent out one of his most active commanders, named Bocchar, to reduce the daring marauders, who had occasioned the utmost consternation among the Carthaginians. Bocchar, having watched a favourable opportunity, surprised the Massylians as they were straggling about the country, and attacked them with such success, that many were taken prisoners, and all the rest, except four, and Masinissa himself, were put to the sword.

Thus stripped of his inheritance, and deprived of his faithful companions, Masinissa eluded the vengeance of his enemies by swimming over a river, and retired, with his surviving comrades, to a solitary cave; whilst Syphax and the Carthaginians triumphed in his supposed death. In this place he remained undiscovered for some time; but, having cured his wounds by the application of certain medicinal herbs, he boldly advanced to his own frontiers, and raised an army,

army, with which he soon reinstated himself in his kingdom, and even made an incursion into that of the Massæsyli.

Syphax, provoked at this daring enterprise, immediately assembled a body of troops, and formed a commodious encampment upon a ridge of hills between Hippo and Cirta; whilst his son, Vermina, was dispatched, with a considerable force, to attack the enemy in the rear. Masinissa, upon the first intimation of this design, prepared for his own defence, and inspired his soldiers with such resolution, that they all performed prodigies of valour on his behalf; but, being unexpectedly attacked in the rear, and overpowered with numbers, they were routed, after a most obstinate resistance, and pursued with so dreadful a slaughter, that only Masinissa himself, with sixty horse, escaped to the Lesser Syrtis, where he remained till the arrival of Lælius and the Roman fleet on the coast of Africa, which was soon followed by the reduction of the Massæsylian kingdom, and the death of Syphax.

As an account of the principal transactions, in which Massinissa was concerned, between the second and third Punic wars, has already been given in the history of Rome,* nothing further is requisite to complete the portrait of this hero, than to exhibit some points of his conduct toward the close of life, and some sketches of his character, as given by the most celebrated Greek and Roman authors.

When he was upwards of eighty years old, he drew a line of circumvallation round the Carthaginian army, under Asdrubal; a work which

* Vide vol. v. page 260.

intro-

introduced both the plague and famine into their camp, and reduced them to the necessity of concluding peace upon such terms as their enemy chose to prescribe. This transaction, which happened a short time before the commencement of the third Punic war, tends to demonstrate the royal Numidian's knowledge of fortification, and the extraordinary strength of his understanding, which even old age could not debilitate.

Perceiving that his dissolution was approaching, he sent for Æmilianus, intending to invest him with full power to dispose of his kingdom and estate, for the benefit of his children; but, finding that death would not permit him to have a personal conference with that young hero, he made known his desires to his family; and, after solemnly enjoining them to execute whatever Æmilianus should decree, he expired in the ninety-first year of his age.

This prince, in the early part of his life, experienced many trying vicissitudes; but he afterward enjoyed an uninterrupted course of prosperity for a long series of years. His dominions extended from Mauritania to the western borders of Cyrenaica; and his friendly exertions diffused the blessings of civilization among many of the inhabitants of that extensive tract. He was blessed with extraordinary strength and vigour, as the result of his extreme temperance; and, at the advanced age of ninety years, performed all the equestrian and other exercises commonly used by the youth of his country. His prudence, courage, and resolution, were equally worthy of applause; and, after an equitable reign of sixty years, he left his kingdom in a most flourishing condition.

Æmilianus,

Æmilianus, arriving at Cirta shortly after the king had expired, prepared to fulfil his valued friend's request, and accordingly divided the government among the three legitimate princes, Micipsa, Gulussa, and Mastanabal, and enriched the other sons with considerable possessions. In this division the dispositions of the royal brothers was prudently considered. Micipsa, whose pacific mind seemed to promise the most substantial blessings to his people, received the care of the metropolis. Gulussa, being possessed of a military genius, was appointed to command the army, and transact all business relative to peace or war: and Mastanabal was entrusted with the administration of justice, as an employment the most congenial to his education. They were all, however, dignified with the regal title, and possessed in common the immense treasures of their illustrious father.

Of the affairs of Gulussa and Mastanabal subsequent to this period, nothing is recorded worthy of notice. They both died soon after the departure of Æmilianus, and left their brother Micipsa in sole possession of the kingdom.

In the reign of Micipsa, a considerable part of Asia was infested with locusts, which destroyed every vegetable production, and even devoured dry timber. At length, they were all carried by the wind into the African sea; but, being thrown up in vast heaps on the shore, they contaminated the air, and a pestilence ensued, which swept away an infinite number of men and animals, both in Numidia and Africa Propria.

Micipsa appears to have swayed the Numidian sceptre in profound tranquillity; but his domestic happiness suffered a considerable diminution

nution from a jealousy which he conceived of his nephew Jugurtha, whom he brought up, in the royal palace, with his own sons Adherbal and Hiempsal. Jugurtha was a remarkably handsome youth, endued with great bodily strength, and the finest mental abilities: he used to exercise himself, with persons of his own age, in running, riding, hunting, hurling the javelin, and other manly exercises; he possessed an undaunted courage, joined to the utmost calmness of mind; and, to use the words of Sallust, excelled in all things, but spoke very little of himself.

The king was at first delighted with so fine an assemblage of talents and perfections as shone forth in the person of Jugurtha; but, when he came to reflect on his own advanced age, the tender years of his children, and the enterprising spirit of his nephew, he trembled at the idea of the troubles which might ensue after his decease, and resolved to remove the object of his anxious fear.

To accomplish this design, he commissioned Jugurtha to assist the Romans at the siege of Numantia; but the young prince, having escaped every danger by his admirable conduct, obtained the warmest applause from Scipio, and returned triumphant to Numidia, where he soon acquired a considerable share of popularity—a circumstance which induced Micipsa to change his conduct toward him, and declare him joint heir, with Adherbal and Hiempsal, to the crown.

This extraordinary act of kindness, together with the affectionate speech made by Micipsa, some years afterward, on his death-bed, might naturally have been expected to awaken some grateful

grateful sentiments in the breast of Jugurtha, who, being only an illegitimate son of Mastanabal, had no claim whatever upon the kingdom; but no sooner was his benefactor removed from the stage of life, than he caused Hiempsal to be assassinated in the city of Thirmida, and chased Adherbal out of his own dominions.

In this truly pitiable exigence Adherbal hastened to Rome, and pleaded his cause in the most pathetic manner before the senate; but, notwithstanding the obvious justice of his complaints, a majority of the conscript fathers, being corrupted by the ambassadors of Jugurtha, pronounced him guilty of exciting the late troubles; asserted that Hiempsal had been killed by the Numidians for his excessive severity; and palliated the inhuman proceedings of the usurper. Some of the senators, indeed, expressed their detestation of this venal conduct, and insisted upon bringing Jugurtha to condign punishment, but, their exertions being over-ruled, the best part of Numidia was allotted to the object of every good man's abhorrence, and Adherbal was obliged to rest satisfied with the other.

Emboldened by the behaviour of the senate on this occasion, Jugurtha resolved to pursue his ambitious designs without delay. Accordingly he attacked his cousin by open force, plundered his territories, stormed several of his fortresses, defeated his troops in a pitched battle, and, at length, invested his metropolis. Adherbal, having dispatched deputies to Rome to complain of these outrages, expected succour from the men whose friendship he had been always taught to prize above all the treasures and troops in the world. But in this he was fatally

 disappointed;

disappointed; for, though two deputations arrived from Italy to effect an accommodation, and threaten Jugurtha with the resentment of their republic, unless he raised the siege of Cirta, the power of gold proved irresistible; and the unfortunate Adherbal was left to the mercy of his barbarous relative, who, having effected the reduction of the city, caused him to be put to a cruel death, and massacred the Numidian inhabitants without pity or distinction.

Upon the first news of this tragical event, the Romans inveighed bitterly against the venality of their senators, and clamoured incessantly for the punishment of the murderer. An army was accordingly raised, for the invasion of Numidia, under the command of the consul Calpurnius Bestia, who landed without opposition in Africa, and carried on the war for some time with great vigour, but upon the arrival of Scaurus, a conference took place between the Roman generals and Jugurtha, in which the latter obtained a peace upon advantageous terms. B. C. 110.

The indignation of the Roman populace being rekindled by this scandalous treaty, the prætor Cassius was sent to invite Jugurtha to Rome, that he might discover which of the senators had been seduced by the influence of corruption. Jugurtha readily acceded to this request, but instead of effecting the desired purpose, he found means to corrupt Bæbius Salca, a man of great authority among the Plebeians; and contrived to get Massiva, an illegitimate son of Micipsa, assassinated in the streets of the city.

Having, by this nefarious action, exposed himself to the resentment of the Romans, he hastened

hastened back to his own dominions; and was soon followed by an army under the command of the consul Albinus, who had flattered himself with reducing Numidia before the expiration of his consulate. His design, however, was frustrated by the artifices of Jugurtha, and his inactivity rendered him suspected of having betrayed his country, after the example of his predecessors. The command of the army was then vested in his brother Aulus; but this general was still more unfortunate; for, having marched his troops into a narrow defile, whence it was impossible to extricate himself, he was obliged to submit to the ignominious ceremony of passing under the jugum, and to quit the country within ten days. However, this infamous treaty, being concluded without the consent of the republic, was declared void; and the Roman forces retired into Africa Propria, where they took up their winter quarters.

The command of the army destined to act against Numidia was next conferred on Lucius Metellus, who acted with such resolution in the discharge of his commission, that the sanguinary usurper soon experienced a melancholy reverse of fortune: being defeated in a pitched battle; deprived of the most famous mart in Numidia; and compelled to take shelter in the most dreary part of his dominions.

About this time Bomilcar and Nabdalsa were persuaded by Metellus to assassinate their iniquitous master; but the design was discovered, and the conspirators suffered death. However, this plot had such an effect upon the mind of Jugurtha, that he was ever after tormented by fear, jealousy, and distraction; and destroyed such

numbers of his friends on ill grounded suspicion, that he soon found himself destitute of counsellors, generals, or any other persons capable of carrying on the war. All his movements were, consequently, unsuccessful; his troops were harassed with fruitless and contradictory evolutions; and in the first battle with Metellus he was utterly routed, with the loss of all his standards, his soldiers trusting rather to their heels than to their arms for safety.

B. C. 106.

Metellus pursued the Numidian fugitives to Thala, and attacked the city with such vigour, that Jugurtha thought proper to retire into Gætulia, where he raised a considerable force, and obtained some powerful succours from Bocchus, king of Mauritania.

Marius, having, in the mean time, been promoted to the consulate, landed with a numerous body of forces at Utica, where he cut off great numbers of the Gætulian marauders, and defeated several of Jugurtha's parties, and, after reducing several places of less importance, marched against the city of Capsa, which he delivered up to military execution, and then rased to the ground. This exploit struck so much terror into the Numidians, that many places of considerable strength either opened their gates or were evacuated at Marius's approach; while others, that presumed to resist, were laid in ashes, and the greatest part of Numidia was literally filled with blood and confusion.

Jugurtha, perceiving his inability to repel so formidable an enemy, had recourse to his usual method of bribery; and distributed his gold so successfully among the Mauritanian ministers, that

that Bocchus, after some hesitation, consented to assist him with his whole power, and accordingly marched, together with the Numidian army, against Marius, as he was retiring into winter quarters. But the Roman general obtained a complete victory, and the host of barbarians, consisting of ninety thousand men, was almost entirely destroyed. Sylla, Marius's lieutenant, distinguished himself in an extraordinary manner upon this occasion, and thus laid the foundation of his future greatness.

Bocchus, regarding Jugurtha's condition as altogether desperate, and dreading the vengeance of the Romans, now thought proper to provide for the safety of his own dominions, by offering terms of accommodation; and, after some time, consented to deliver the king of Numidia into the hands of Sylla, by which means a termination was put to this sanguinary and expensive war. For this important service Bocchus was remunerated with the country of the Massæsyli, which from this time bore the name of New Mauritania. The whole kingdom of Numidia also assumed a new form, being divided into three parts, two of which were given to Hiempsal and Mandrestal, both descendants of Masinissa, and the third annexed to Africa Propria, which had been provinciated, by the republic, on a former occasion.

On the first day of the new year Jugurtha was led through the streets of Rome, by the triumphing Marius, and exposed to the view of a people whose indignation had been raised to the highest pitch by his wanton and unnatural cruelties. Plutarch observes that, upon this occasion, the captive tyrant became distracted; that when he

was remanded to prison his distress was greatly augmented by the insults of the spectators, some of whom stripped him of his clothes, while others tore away his goldent pendent with such force as brought away the tip of his ear; and that when he was cast, almost naked, into the dungeon, he forced a ghastly smile, and exclaimed, "O heavens, how intolerably cold is this bath of yours!"—In this situation he struggled, for some time, with the pangs of extreme hunger, and then expired. His two sons survived him, but passed their lives in captivity at Venusia.

Some years after the death of this inhuman prince, Pompey defeated Cneius Domitius Ænobarbus, and Hiarbas, one of the kings of Numidia, with great slaughter; and gave the sovereignty to Hiempsal, a neighbouring prince, descended from Masinissa, who had always zealously opposed the Marian faction.

Juba, the son of Hiempsal, having received an unpardonable affront from Julius Cæsar, exerted himself to prejudice that celebrated Roman in the civil war between him and Pompey, and actually involved him in many difficulties. However, Cæsar was at length victorious; the unfortunate prince sought death in a single combat with Petreius; and Numidia was reduced to a Roman province.

MAURI.

MAURITANIANS.

MAURITANIA, so called from the Mauri, an ancient people frequently mentioned by the old historians and geographers, was bounded by the Mediterranean on the north; by the Molucha on the east; by Gætulia on the south; and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west. It contained several cities of note; and was famed for a luxuriant produce of grapes, apples, and other hortulan productions. The islands on the Mauritanian coast were also so highly esteemed, on account of their happy climate, fertile soil, and salubrious air, that the ancients honoured them with the appellation of "Fortunate," and here fixed their Elysian fields.

With respect to the origin of the Mauritanians, it appears that they were descended from Phut, the son of Ham. The Phœnicians, however, planted colonies among them in very early ages; and it may be inferred, from the testimony of several respectable writers, that the Arabs had a place among the most ancient inhabitants of their country.

Their government seems to have been monarchical from the earliest ages; for Justin says that Hanno, a Carthaginian nobleman, in order to accomplish some ambitious designs, had recourse to the king of the Mauri; and the great figure which the Mauri made in Africa, before the Romans became formidable in that country, serves to indicate that most of them were united under one sovereign; though mention is occasionally

sionally made of several reguli, or heads of the Kabyles, who were engaged in sanguinary wars with each other.

Their religion cannot now be satisfactorily described, its peculiarities having been, for many ages, buried in oblivion. It appears, however, that Neptune was one of their principal objects of adoration; that the sun and moon were worshipped after the manner of the other Libyan nations; and that human victims were occasionally sacrificed to their gods.

Their characters appear to have been the same with the Numidian, and their language seems to have differed from that of Numidia in the same manner only as a dialect of one tongue does from another.

Of their arts and sciences historians have said but little. It is evident, however, that they had some knowledge of nautical affairs, not only from their intercourse with the Phœnicians and Carthaginians, but also from the testimony of Onomacritus, who affirms, that they formed a settlement near Colchis, whither they came by sea. They applied themselves, in the earliest ages, to the study of magic, sorcery, and divination; and Cicero informs us, that Atlas first introduced astrology and the doctrine of the sphere into Mauritania—a circumstance which probably gave rise to the fable of Atlas's bearing the heavens upon his shoulders. Neptune, who reigned in this country, is also said to have first fitted out a fleet, and invented tall ships with sails; so that the Mauritanians must have possessed some ideas of astronomy, astrology, geography, and navigation, at a very early period.

All

All persons of distinction in Mauritania were richly apparelled; and took great pains in cleansing their teeth, combing their beards, and curling their hair. The poorer class, however, usually wore a thick garment, and a coarse rough tunic, which resembled that of their neighbours the Numidians. They were strangers to the art of husbandry, and roved about the country like the ancient Scythians or Arabes Scenitæ. Their tents or mapalia were so extremely small, that they could scarcely breathe in them; and their principal food consisted of corn and herbage, which they ate green, without any preparation. They are said to have possessed considerable skill in the preparation of poisons; and perpetual exercise rendered them very skilful in hurling the dart. Their soldiers bore a remarkably savage appearance, being clad in the skins of lions, bears, or leopards, and carrying targets or bucklers made of elephants hides. Their horses were small, but exceedingly swift, and so perfectly under command, that they would follow their riders like dogs.

The two first princes of Mauritania, except Neptune, mentioned by historians, were Atlas and Antæus. Several corroborative testimonies, however, seem to justify the opinion that these were but different names of the same person; for they were both the sons of Neptune, who reigned over Mauritania, Numidia, and a considerable part of Libya; they both ruled with despotic authority over great part of Africa; both are said to have been overcome by Hercules; and both are celebrated for their superior knowledge in the celestial sciences.

Antæus is said to have evinced the most undaunted

daunted bravery and resolution in his war with Hercules, and to have achieved some important advantages; but that famous warrior, having intercepted a numerous body of Libyan forces, defeated him with great slaughter; and thus made himself master of the kingdom and royal treasures: hence arose the fable that Hercules took Atlas's globe upon his own shoulders, vanquished the dragon that guarded the orchards of the Hesperides, and took possession of all the golden fruit.

Nothing worthy notice is related of the Mauritanians from the defeat of Antæus till the time of Bogud, who, in conjunction with Publius Sittius, contributed very considerably to Cæsar's success in Africa, and rendered him some important services, when the memorable victory of Munda annihilated the Roman republic. After the death of that illustrious general, he joined Marc Antony against Octavius, and endeavoured to make a diversion in favour of the former in Spain: but, whilst he was engaged in this expedition, the Tingitanians revolted from their allegiance, and bestowed the sovereignty upon Bocchus, who was confirmed in his new dignity by the emperor. After making some unsuccessful efforts for the recovery of this part of his dominions, Bogud was slain by Agrippa, at Methona; and Tingitania was, soon afterward, provinciated.

The younger Juba received the two Mauritanias from the munificence of Augustus, who also gave him the princess Cleopatra (daughter of Antony and the famous queen of Egypt) in marriage. This prince, having received a liberal education at Rome, imbibed such a variety

of

of knowledge, as afterward enabled him to vie with the most learned natives of Greece. He was remarkably well acquainted with the Assyrian, Arabic, Greek, Punic, African, and Latin histories; and wrote some excellent treatises on grammar, painting, natural history, &c.; a few fragments of which are still extant. His mild and equitable conduct in the government of Mauritania is honorably mentioned by ancient writers, and conciliated the esteem of his subjects so effectually, that they ever retained a grateful recollection of his administration, and erected a statue to his memory.

He was succeeded by his son Ptolemy; in whose reign Tacfarinas, a native of Numidia, who had served among the Roman auxiliaries just before the third consulate of Tiberius, assembled an army of barbarians, and committed many depredations in Africa: but, after some time, he was defeated by Dolabella, and most of his followers put to the sword. Ptolemy was, soon afterward, cut off by Caius, either from a principle of avarice or jealousy, as appears from the united testimonies of Dio and Suetonius.

To revenge the death of his beloved master, Ædemon assembled a body of his countrymen, and took up arms: but, a Roman army being sent against them by the emperor Claudius, they were compelled to desist from their daring enterprise; and, the following year, a treaty was concluded between the adverse generals, by which Mauritania seems to have been delivered up to the Romans; for it was, soon afterward, divided into two provinces, the one called Mauritania Tingitana, and the other Mauritania Cæsariensis.

GÆTULIANS.

GÆTULIANS.

THE ancient * Gætulians, according to the most respectable authorities, were some of the first inhabitants of Africa, extremely rude in their manners, and destitute of any settled government. They are said to have subsisted upon the flesh of wild beasts; to have eaten their food upon the ground, like cattle; and to have roved about the country, taking up their lodging in caves, or any other recesses, at the approach of night. This state of barbarity, however, continued only till the Roman times, when they were under the direction of certain phylarchs, or heads of kabyles, as their descendants are at the present day.

Their language appears to have borne a near resemblance to the Arabic and other Oriental tongues; and their religion was, in all probability, similar to that of their progenitors, the ancient Arabs, which will be noticed in its proper place. Whether they had any particular customs different from the Numidians and Mauritanians, cannot now be determined, as historians are totally silent upon the subject. With respect to arts, or erudition, nothing can be expected among so unpolished a race.

The early history of this people is so obscure, that Scylax and Herodotus do not even advert

* The limits of Gætulia have never been satisfactorily defined by any of the ancient geographers.

to any of their transactions. Livy, however, informs us, that a corps of this people was employed by Hannibal in the second Punic war, and repulsed, at the siege of Casilinum, with considerable loss. Whether they were ever subdued by Masinissa, who gained some important conquests in Africa, cannot now be determined; but it appears, from good authority, that his grandson, Jugurtha, instructed them in military discipline.

That part of Gætulia which belonged to Juba came over to Julius Cæsar; but the time when it was provinciated cannot now be fixed with precision; especially as Augustus bestowed some part of Gætulia on the younger Juba, as an equivalent for his paternal kingdom of Numidia.

About the year of Rome 759, the Gætulians revolted against Juba, massacred all the Romans that had settled in his dominions, and committed many outrages in the neighbouring provinces; but Cornelius Cossus gave them so complete an overthrow, that they were compelled to submit upon such terms as he thought proper to prescribe. Nothing farther is related of them as a nation: but, in the elder Pliny's time, they possessed some inconsiderable settlements in Tingitania and Numidia.

THE MELANOGÆTULI, OR NIGRITÆ, AND GARAMANTES.

THE Melanogætuli, or black Gætulians, are placed, by Ptolemy, between the mountains Sagapola and Usargala, in a district south east of Gætulia Propria, and north of the river Niger. The modern district of Wad-reag, in the province of Constantina, seems to correspond with this country; and the tract inhabited by the Beni Mezzab, with the village of Engousah, the city of Tuggurt, and their dependencies, are supposed to have been anciently included in Melanogætulia. As Ptolemy places the Melanogætuli next to the Pharusii, fixing his Nigritian Ethiopians to the north of the Niger; and, as both Pliny and Strabo give the Nigritæ the same situation, with respect to the Pharusii, but take no notice of the Melanogætuli, it appears extremely probable that the subjects of our present consideration, and the Nigritiæ, were the same people.

According to Leo, and the African historians, Sabtecha, the son of Cush, first peopled the Sahara, betwixt the mountains of Atlas and Nigritia; and therefore, probably, Nigritia itself. It also appears, from the same authority, that the various Nigritian dialects bear a striking affinity to the Chaldee, Arabic, and Egyptian tongues, and, consequently, to the Ethiopic, which does not differ widely from them.

The

The Carthaginians, according to the testimony of Frontinus, had Melanogætulian, or Nigritian troops in their service, before the time of Gelon;—a circumstance which accounts for a strange phænomenon in antiquity, viz. several antique coins bearing a negro's or Nigritian's head.

The Nigritæ are said to have used armed chariots in battle, and to have carried bows and arrows like the western Ethiopians. They also travelled in caravans through the deserts, to Cirta, and kept open a communication with the natives of Carthage, Numidia, and Mauritania.

The GARAMANTES were situated to the south-east of Gætulia, and the east of the Nigritæ. The limits of their country have not been ascertained by ancient geographers; but it appears to have consisted of several large territories, and to have extended to the borders of Ethiopia Proper.

The most ancient inhabitants were entirely destitute of arms; and so remarkably wild, that they fled with the utmost precipitation at the sight of a stranger. However, in process of time, they built some towns in the vicinage of Mount Girgiris, and carried on a trade with the Carthaginians, Arabs, Persians, and Ethiopians. Some of them wandered about the deserts like their successors, the modern Bedouins, subsisting by hunting wild animals, whilst others inhabited the dashkras, scattered up and down their arid and steril plains.

They seem to have descended originally from Misraim and Cush; as some of the most perfect Egyptian mummies bear a striking resemblance to the present negroes, and their language, in

ancient times, was remarkably similar to the Egyptian. However, some colonies of Arabs appear to have settled among them. Of their religion we have no farther account than that they, in common with the Arabs, Ethiopians, and Indians, worshipped Jupiter Ammon, representing him, for the most part, with a ram's head, or at least with ram's horns.

In the early ages they were governed by phylarchs, or heads of tribes, in the same manner as the Arabs and Gætulians; but afterward they seem to have lived beneath a monarchy. Masinissa took refuge among them, after he had been chased from his own kingdom by Syphax: but, as the roads which led to their country were constantly infested by banditti, the Romans knew little of them till after the expiration of the republic. During the reign of Augustus, they were subdued by Lucius Cornelius Balba; but they soon shook off the yoke, and joined Tacfarinas, in the time of Tiberius, against the Romans. However, on the defeat of Tacfarinas, they sent ambassadors to assuage the emperor's resentment, and are supposed to have submitted peaceably to his authority.

Of the Nubæ, Perorsi, Gongalæ, and many other obscure nations inhabiting that part of Libya Interior, called, by the ancients, Western Ethiopia, nothing is known except their names. It appears, indeed, that the Greeks were not ignorant of them in the time of Scylax; but, as both that author and Hanno have admitted many fables into their writings, nothing satisfactory can be drawn from thence.

LIBYANS AND GREEKS

INHABITING THE TRACT BETWEEN THE BORDERS OF EGYPT AND THE RIVER TRITON, COMPREHENDING MARMARICA, CYRENAICA, AND THE REGIO SYRTICA.

SECTION I.

MARMARICA.

MARMARICA, according to ancient geographers, was bounded on the east and west by Egypt and Cyrenaica; on the south, by the desert of Sahara; and on the north, by the Mediterranean.

The principal Libyan nations inhabiting this region were the Adyrmachidæ and Ammonii; the former of whom were situated near the canopic mouth of the Nile, and usually fought with a scymitar; and the latter, who derived their name from Jupiter Ammon, their chief deity, lay nearer Cyrenaica, and about ten days journey from Thebes, in Upper Egypt. It has been already seen, in the history of Persia, that Cambyses sent a detachment of fifty thousand men from Thebes, to lay waste the country of the Ammonii, and destroy the temple of their favorite god; but, as they never returned, it is supposed they were overwhelmed by the moving sands.

Authors are not perfectly agreed on the subject of the origin of the Marmaridæ, some regarding

them as Libyans, and others as Egyptians; but the greatest part rank them among the former. However, as they appear to have been, from very remote antiquity, subject to the kings of Egypt, we must, of necessity, refer our readers for an account of the transactions which occurred here, to the history of that country, and likewise to those of the Persians, Macedonians, and Romans, by whom the Marmaridæ were successively governed.

Of the Zygritæ, seated near the Greater Catabathmus; the Buzes lying more to the south; and the Mareotæ, situated on the borders of the Adyrmachidæ, nothing has been recorded worthy of observation.

SECT. II.

CYRENAICA.

THIS tract of country was bounded by the Mediterranean on the north; by Marmarica on the east; by the desert of Sahara on the south; and by the Regio Syrtica on the west. The soil was, in general, barren, and the air insalubrious; but some parts were blest with a tolerable share of fertility, and produced roses, violets, and other flowers of peculiar fragrancy.

The principal nations who occupied or bordered upon this region, were the Barcæi, the Psylli, and the Nasamones. The Barcæi, according to Virgil and Silius, spread themselves over a considerable part of Libya, and built a metropolis, which made the greatest figure of any city in this country, except Cyrene. They

are

are said to have learned the art of managing horses from Neptune; of driving chariots from Minerva; and to have practised the customs of the other Libyan nomades.

The Psylli having once had all their reservoirs of water dried up, advanced into the Sahara, with a design to make war upon the south wind; but their mad presumption was suitably punished—the whole of their army being overwhelmed with torrents of sand.

The Nasamones are said to have been a powerful nation in the time of Herodotus; but they subsisted chiefly by predatory incursions into the adjacent countries, and were therefore generally regarded as little better than a numerous banditti.

Battus the Theræan, according to Herodotus, settled, with a colony of his countrymen, first in the island of Platæa, and afterward on the Libyan continent; where they built Cyrene, about the third year of the thirty-seventh Olympiad.

Of Arcesilaus I, Battus II, and Arcesilaus II, nothing is recorded except their names and accessions. But Battus III, surnamed the Happy, strengthened his army by the accession of many Greeks, who came to live in his dominions, and defeated Apries, king of Egypt, in a pitched battle, near the fountain of Thestis, in Irasa.

Arcesilaus III, the son of this prince, was engaged in a war with his own brothers, one of whom defeated him in battle, and shortly after caused him to be assassinated.

Battus IV, surnamed the Lame, ascended the throne after his father's death, and introduced several alterations into the form of government.

Arcesilaus IV. attempted to restore the Cyrenian

renian constitution to its original state; but his design was so ill relished by the populace, that they immediately rose in arms, and compelled him to abandon the country. In this exigence he sought an asylum with Euelthon, of Salamis, and was received by that prince with extraordinary kindness. He afterward retired to the court of his father-in-law, Alazar, at Barca; and was there assassinated as he was walking in the market-place.

Pheretima, the mother of Arcesilaus, having, in the mean time, established her authority at Cyrene, prevailed on the Persians to besiege the city of Barca, and to put into her hands all persons who had been concerned in the murder of her son: these she caused to be impaled round the walls of the town, and fixed near them the breasts of their wives, which were cut off for that horrid purpose. This monster of cruelty is said afterward to have been literally devoured by worms—a suitable punishment for her enormous barbarity.

From this period nothing worthy of record appears in the Cyrenian history, except that the people retained their independence, and were governed by their own laws, till the subjugation of their country by the hero of Macedon. Shortly after the demise of Alexander, Thimbro invaded Cyrenaica, defeated the natives in a pitched battle, and compelled them to purchase a peace with half of their armed chariots, and five thousand talents of silver; but he was soon after vanquished and taken prisoner by Ophellas, who appears, by some means, to have obtained the sovereignty.

Magas, the brother of Ptolemy Lagus, reigned at

at Cyrene fifty years; after which the government remained under the Egyptian monarchs, till Ptolemy Physcon transferred it to his natural son, surnamed Apion, who left it, by will, to the Romans.

On the decease of this prince the senate declined his legacy, and left all the Cyrenian cities to be governed by their own laws. This permission, however, produced so much contention, and raised up so many rival tyrants, that the Romans were compelled to send an army, under the command of Lucullus, to restore the public tranquillity; and, about twenty years after the death of Apion, it was found necessary to reduce the country to the form of a province. On the declension of the Roman empire, it was subdued by the Arabs; and afterward fell to the Turks, who still hold it in their possession.

SECT. III.

THE REGIO SYRTICA.

THE Regio Syrtica, so denominated because the two Syrtes formed the northern extremities of its eastern and western limits, was bounded by the Mediterranean on the north; by Cyrenaica on the east; by the Sahara on the south; and by Africa Propria on the west. A considerable part of the country was extremely barren; but some places were tolerably productive of corn, fruit, and oil.

The principal nations that inhabited this region were, the Gindanes, Cinethii, Macæ, and Lotophagii,

phagii. The Gindanes, according to Herodotus, were seated in the vicinage of the Cinyps: their women wore as many borders on their upper garment as they had lovers; and she who had the greatest number was most esteemed. The Cinethii are mentioned by Ptolemy as a respectable people, situated behind the Machyni, and near the Lesser Syrtis. The Macæ were a tolerably potent nation in the neighbourhood of the Garamantes; they shaved their heads all over, except the middle, which was adorned with a single lock of hair; and, when they made war upon any of the neighbouring tribes, they wore the skins of ostriches instead of armour. And the Lotophagii, so called from the circumstance of their subsisting chiefly on the fruit of the Lotus, were a very numerous race, whose territory extended almost from the Greater to the Lesser Syrtis.

As these nations agreed, in all material points, with the other Libyan Nomades, whose history has been already given, nothing farther can be said of their origin, government, religion, or language. They seem to have been subdued by the famous Egyptian monarch, Sesostris, or Sesac; but how long they remained in subjection to Egypt cannot now be determined. Some part of the Regio Syrtica appears to have been under the dominion of the Cyreneans till the regulation of limits took place, according to Sallust, between that people and the sons of Carthage. Subsequent to that period, it remained in the hands of the Carthaginians till it was wrested from them by the warlike Masinissa. In later ages it underwent the same fate as most of the contiguous regions.

ETHIO-

ETHIOPIANS.

ETHIOPIA Propria was bounded on the north by Egypt; on the east by the Red Sea; on the south by a part of Africa unknown to the ancients; and on the west by Libya Interior. The face of the country is diversified with mountains and valleys; the soil, when properly cultivated, yields exuberant crops of grain, pulse, and other vegetable productions; and the climate is, in general, so healthy, that the natives frequently attain to longevity. Some parts, however, are rendered equally unpleasant and insalubrious by intolerable heat, a stagnant atmosphere, or tremendous whirlwinds, which raise the sand in spiral volumes to the sky, and level or overwhelm all before them.

The Ethiopians might justly vie with, and even claim a superiority over the Egyptians, in point of antiquity; since their progenitor, Cush, was the eldest son of Ham. They might also have been esteemed of equal antiquity with the Arabians, as the Cushites migrated, from the kingdom of Midian, both into the southern parts of the peninsula of the Arabs and Ethiopia.

The communication which subsisted between Egypt and Ethiopia, as well as the proximity of blood of Cush and Mizraim, introduced many of those customs, laws, and sciences among the Ethiopians, which have already been noticed in the history of Egypt. Their religion, like that of

of the neighbouring nations, was gross idolatry; their government appears to have been monarchical from the earliest ages; and their language bore so close an affinity to the Hebrew, that, whoever was perfectly acquainted with the one might, without any great difficulty, attain the knowledge of the other.

The early history of Ethiopia is enveloped in such clouds of fiction and uncertainty, that but little can be said on the subject, with any degree of confidence, till the time of Solomon, when it was subject to Sesac, or Sesostris, king of Egypt.

Upon the demise of this victorious prince, a civil war broke out in Egypt, which Sir Isaac Newton supposes to have been invaded, at this time, by the Libyans, and defended by the Ethiopians. About ten years after this occurrence, the Ethiopians seized upon Egypt, and, at the same time, made themselves masters of Libya; a circumstance which accounts for the numerous host led by Zerah, the Ethiopian, against Asa, king of Judah. However, Asa defeated that great army in the fifteenth year of his reign, and gained such important advantages, that Zerah could never rally his scattered forces. Hereupon, the inhabitants of the Lower Egypt shook off the Ethiopic yoke, and compelled Memnon, or Amenophis, king of that country, to retire to Memphis, whence he is said to have retreated into Ethiopia. However, about thirteen years after this disgrace, Memnon returned with his son Rameses, at the head of a formidable army, and chased the Phœnicians out of Lower Egypt; which action the Egyptian historians call the second expulsion of the shepherds.

From

From a comparative view of several historical facts, Sir Isaac Newton renders it probable that Memnon, Amenophis, and Menes, were the same person; that the Ethiopian prince who bore these names was the son of Zerah; and that he died, in a very advanced age, about ninety years after the accession of Rehoboam to the throne of Judah.

He was succeeded by his son Rameses, who built a portico to the temple of Vulcan at Memphis. Mœris, his successor, embellished the city of Memphis, and fixed his residence there about two hundred years after the Trojan war. The sceptre was then successively swayed by Cheops, Cephrenes, and Mycerinus, whose principal actions have been already noticed in the history of Egypt. In the reign of Asychis both Assyria and Ethiopia revolted from Egypt, which was thereupon divided into several small kingdoms. Gnephactus possessed the regal title in one of these, and fixed his residence at Memphis; but his son Bocchoris was slain by Sabacon, the Ethiopian.

From the demise of Sethon, the son of Sabacon, little is known concerning the affairs of Ethiopia till the seventy-eighth year of Nabonassar, when the country was subdued by Esar-Haddon, king of Assyria. This monarch committed many cruelties there, and in Egypt, and governed both these kingdoms till the time of his death. But then the Ethiopians threw off the Assyrian yoke, and maintained their independence till the time of Cyrus the Great. Shortly after the demise of that prince, they appear to have withdrawn themselves from the Persians; since we find Cambyses, the son of

Cyrus, engaged in a fruitless expedition* against them.

Alexander the Great does not seem to have undertaken any expedition against this people, though one of his first enquiries at the oracle of Jupiter Ammon was after the sources of the Nile. Ptolemy Euergetes is said to have carried his arms into the farthest parts of Ethiopia, and to have subdued most of its inhabitants: it is probable, however, that he soon abandoned these conquests; for nothing worthy of notice is recorded concerning any branch of the Proper Ethiopians, from this period till the time of Augustus.

About the year of Rome 725, Candace, queen of Ethiopia, made an irruption, at the head of a numerous army, into the province of Thebais; reduced Syene, Philæ and Elephantine, the Egyptian frontiers on the side of Ethiopia, without opposition; and made three Roman cohorts prisoners of war. But Petronius, the governor of Egypt, soon compelled her to retire into her own dominions, and gained so decisive a victory over her undisciplined forces, that she deemed it advisable to send an embassy to Augustus, to request a cessation of hostilities. Augustus gave the envoys a very gracious reception, and granted their mistress a peace upon honourable terms; but the Romans now regarded themselves as masters of Ethiopia, and complimented the emperor on his important conquest. Pliny intimates that the Ethiopians had been governed, for several preceding generations, by queens, who all bore the name of Candace.

But little occurs respecting the Ethiopians

* Vide Vol. VIII. page 42.

from this period till the reign of Probus, who undertook an expedition against a predatory tribe called Blemmyes, many of whom were led in triumph, and exhibited so strange an appearance as greatly astonished the Romans. Toward the close of the third century, that nation and the Nobatæ, a people inhabiting the banks of the Nile, committed great depredations in Thebais, and other parts of the Roman territories. The emperor Dioclesian, instead of chastising their insolence, assigned them certain lands for their subsistence, and transplanted some of them to an island near Elephantine, where he gave them the use of the temples in common with his own subjects, and permitted their own priests to officiate at the altars, supposing that this would produce a perfect harmony between the nations. However, they continued their nefarious practices till Justinian issued orders for their temples to be demolished, their priests imprisoned, and all the images of their gods sent to Byzantium.

Nothing worthy of notice is recorded of the Ethiopians from the reign of Dioclesian, till the time of their conversion to Christianity. The modern Abassines assert, that our Saviour was born in the thirteenth year of Bazen, a prince of the Solomonean * line, and the twenty-fourth from Menilehec, surnamed El Hakim, or the Wise. They also enumerate thirteen kings, who reigned for the space of three hundred and twenty-seven years between him and Abreha, and Atzbeha, who sat upon the throne when Frumentius carried the glorious light of the gospel into Abassia.

* The Abassines believe their kings to have descended from Solomon and the queen of Sheba.

Of the planting of Christianity in Abassia or Ethiopia, Rufinus and some other writers have given the following account.—" Meropius, a Tyrian philosopher, having travelled over the greatest part of India, either in quest of philosophical discoveries, or for the sake of traffic, determined, at length, to return home with two young men, the companions of his travels; but, on his touching at an island in the Red Sea, he died; and his kinsmen, Frumentius and Ædesius, fell into the hands of the Barbarians, who immediately presented them to the king. In this new situation the travellers acted with such propriety, and gave so many proofs of their talents and industry, that they were soon raised to honourable posts at court: and, on the king's demise, Frumentius was entrusted with the management of public affairs by the queen, who had been appointed guardian to her infant son. Frumentius immediately exerted himself to bring the people under his inspection to the knowledge of the gospel; and, after some time, took a journey to Alexandria, to inform St. Athanasius of his success. Hereupon, the patriarch consecrated him Bishop of Axuma, and, about the year of our Lord 335, sent him into Ethiopia, where he baptized great numbers of the inhabitants; built several churches, ordained presbyters and deacons, and propagated the holy faith with astonishing rapidity through almost every part of that extensive region.

Abra and Asba, who jointly swayed the sceptre, are highly celebrated by the Ethiopian writers; and the harmony which subsisted between them was so extraordinary as to become proverbial. During this reign the emperor Constantius

stantius made use of several expedients to introduce the doctrines of Arianism into Ethiopia; but all his exertions were completely frustrated.

Few transactions relative to Ethiopia have been noticed by historians from the reign of Constantius to the time of Elesbaan, who declared war against the Homerites, for massacering some christian merchants, and solemnly vowed to become a christian, in case he proved victorious. Having, therefore, obtained a complete conquest, he embraced the true faith, and placed a christian prince on the throne of the Homerites. On a future occasion, he took up arms against the usurper Dunaan, who had raised a dreadful persecution against the Christians, and obtained a decisive victory, which gave the Abassines possession of Arabia Felix till the time of Abd al Motalleb, grandfather of Mahomet.

Gebra Meskel, successor to Elesbaan, is said to have greatly augmented his dominions, though the particulars of his conquests are passed over in silence. He formed an alliance with the emperor Justinian, and was highly celebrated for his piety.

Upon the demise of this prince the government devolved on one Constantine, and afterward on Fresenna, whose name implies *good fruit*. During the interval of time between the reigns of Fresenna and Delnoad, the latter of whom ascended the throne about the year of our Lord 960, nothing occurs in the Ethiopian history worthy of observation. About this time the usurpation of the Zagæan family commenced, as will appear in its proper place.

ANCIENT ARABS.

ARABIA, taken in its largest extent, is situated between the twelfth and thirty-fifth degrees of north latitude, and the fifty-third and seventy-eighth of longitude; being bounded by part of Syria, Diyar-Beer, Irak and Khuzestan, on the north; by the Euphrates, the Persian gulf, and the bay of Ormus, on the east; by the straits of Bab al Mandab and the Indian ocean on the south; and by Palestine, the Red Sea, and the isthmus of Suez, on * the west.

This extensive peninsula was divided by Ptolemy into three parts; viz. Arabia Petræa, Arabia Deserta, and Arabia Felix; and since the time of that eminent geographer, this division has generally prevailed.

Arabia Petræa was bounded by Palestine, the lake Asphaltites, and Cœlo-Syria, on the north; by Syria and Arabia Deserta on the east; by Arabia Felix on the south; and by the isthmus of Suez and the Heroopolitan gulf on the west. Its soil did not admit of much cultivation, being covered with rocks or arid sand; and most of its towns were too insignificant to merit the attention of posterity. It was, however, inhabited, in very remote ages, by several nations;

* The limits of the *Arabia Proper* are much more circumscribed, as extending no farther northward than the isthmus, running from Ailah to the head of the Persian gulf, and the borders of the territory of Cufa.

of

of which the Ishmaelites, Nabatheans, Kedareni, and Hagareni, were the most considerable.

Arabia Deserta was bounded on the north by the Euphrates, which separated it from Mesopotamia; on the east by a ridge of mountains, dividing it from Chaldea and Babylonia; on the south by Arabia Felix, from which it was likewise disjoined by several ranges of hills; and on the west by Syria, Judea, and Arabia Petræa. The greatest part of the country was a mere desert, being no otherwise diversified than by arid plains of sand, rocky mountains, and a few fertile spots, which resembled so many little islands, surrounded by an extensive ocean. The principal nations who inhabited this tract were the Cauchabeni, Rhaabeni, Æsitæ, Batanæi, and Agræi. Ptolemy has enumerated several towns appertaining to this province, but none of them were places of importance.

Arabia Felix, a considerable part of which is well watered, and blest with abundant fertility, was limited by Arabia Petræa and Arabia Deserta on the north; by the Erythrean sea on the south; and by part of that sea, together with the Arabian and Persian gulfs, on the east and west. In short, it nearly corresponded with that tract which is regarded, by oriental geographers, as the proper peninsula of the Arabs. Strabo affirms, that, in his time, it was divided into five kingdoms, which strictly agrees with the division of the Proper Arabia, by the eastern writers, into the five provinces of Yemen, Hejaz, Tehama, Najd, and Yamana. The principal nations situated in this country, in the early ages, were the Sabæi, Gerræi, Minæi, Adramitæ, Ascitæ,

tæ, Homerites, Sapphoritæ, Omanitæ, Bnizomenæ, and Nabathæans.

The Arabs, according to their own historians, are sprung from two stocks; viz. Kahtan, or Joktan, the son of Eber, and Adnan, a lineal descendant of Ishmael. The posterity of the former are called Al Arab al Ariba, *genuine Arabs*; and those of the latter are distinguished by the term al Arab al Mostareba, *naturalized Arabs*. The uncertainty of the descents between Ishmael and Adnan is the reason why they seldom trace their genealogies higher than the latter, and regard him as the father of their tribes.

The religion of the Arabs, prior to the time of Mahomet, consisted, like that of the Sabians, in worhipping the heavenly bodies, and certain inferior deities, which they called Al Ilahat, or the goddesses. Their idols of wood and stone were also extremely numerous; and angels, or superior intelligences, were regarded as mediators between men and the Supreme Being, whom they called Allah Taâla, the Most High God. It appears, however, from good authority, that the Magian religion was planted by the Persians among some of the Arab tribes; Judaism was introduced into several parts of the country shortly after the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus Vespasian; and the Christian faith was planted, at a very early period, with tolerable success.

Their government, like that of their descendants, the Bedouins, was vested in certain shekhs and emirs; the former of whom superintended particular collections of tents called khymas, or villages, and the latter ruled over a whole tribe. Both these descriptions of rulers, however, seem

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to have acknowledged the sovereignty of one particular person, who was either distinguished by the regal title, or, at least, by that of grand emir, and maintained the Arabs in possession of their particular customs, laws and privileges.

Of their language the following interesting account is given by Sir William Jones, whose elegant writings must ever be highly esteemed by the sons of science. "As the Arabic * language is unquestionably one of the most ancient in the world, so it yields to none ever spoken by mortals in the number of its words, and the precision of its phrases; but it is equally true and wonderful, that it bears not the least resemblance, either in words, or the structure of them, to the Sanscrit, or great parent of Indian dialects: of which dissimilarity two remarkable instances may be given: the Sanscrit, like the Greek, Persian, and German, delights in compounds, but in a much higher degree; while the Arabic, and all its sister dialects, abhor the composition of words, and invariably express very complex ideas by circumlocution: so that if a compound word be found in any genuine language of the Arabian peninsula, it may at once be pronounced an exotic. Again: it is the genius of the Sanscrit, and other languages of the same stock, that the roots of verbs be almost universally biliteral; so that five-and-twenty hundred such roots might be formed by the composition of the fifty Indian letters: but the Arabic roots are as universally triliteral; so

* Vide Asiatic Researches, vol. ii. page 5:

"that

"that the composition of the twenty-eight Ara-"bian letters would give near two-and-twenty-"thousand elements of the language. Of the "characters in which the old compositions of "Arabia were written we know but little, ex-"cept that the Koran originally appeared in "those of Cufah; from which the modern Ara-"bian letters, with all their elegant variations, "were derived, and which unquestionably had "a common origin with the Hebrew or Chal-"daic."

The sciences chiefly cultivated by the ancient Arabs were three; that of their history and genealogies; such a knowledge of the stars as enabled them to predict the change of weather; and the interpretation of dreams. They had also a considerable degree of knowledge in several mechanical arts; and many of them became famous, in early ages, for their cultivation of eloquence and poetry.

With respect to their disposition, it is proper to remark, that they had their excellencies and defects, as well as other nations. Thus, hospitality was so habitual to them, that in this they seemed to exceed all their neighbours, and the contrary vice was held in the utmost contempt and abhorrence: they are highly commended by the ancients, on account of their fidelity to their friends and their respectful behaviour to the aged; and they have been celebrated, in all ages, for the brilliancy of their wit and their quickness of penetration. But, on the other hand, it is evident, even from their own writers, that they had a natural inclination to bloodshed, rapine, and cruelty; and that they were

were so much addicted to retain malice, that they were scarcely ever known to forget an old injury.

The ancient Scenite Arabs, or Nabatheans, subsisted chiefly by plunder, and frequently changed their habitations as the convenience of water and pasturage for their cattle invited them. But the more civilized tribes resided in towns and cities, where they gained a livelihood by the cultivation of palm-trees, feeding of cattle, and the exercise of various trades, particularly merchandize, wherein they were very eminent, even in the time of the patriarch Jacob. Strabo asserts, that Arabia was aggrandized chiefly by commerce; and that a great part of the riches, which the ancients regarded as the produce of the country, came from the Indies and the coast of Africa.

We shall conclude these remarks on the Arabs with the following short quotation from the justly celebrated discourse of Sir William Jones on that ancient nation. "The Arabs * have "never been entirely subdued, nor has any impression been made on them, except on their "borders; where the Phœnicians, Persians, Ethiopians, Egyptians, and, in later ages, the "Othman Tartars, have severally acquired settlements; but, with these exceptions, the natives of Hejaz and Yemen have preserved, for "ages, the sole dominion of their deserts and "pastures, their mountains and fertile valleys: "they have also retained their primitive manners, "language, features, and character, as long and "as remarkably as the Hindus themselves. The

* Vide Asiatic Researches, vol. ii. page 2.

"present

"present genuine Arabs of Syria, Yemen, and "Hejaz, form a striking contrast to the Hindu "inhabitants of those provinces: their eyes are "full of vivacity; their speech voluble and arti-"culate; their deportment manly and dignified; "their minds always attentive, and their coun-"tenances strongly marked with a spirit of in-"dependence."

Joktan, the son of Eber, whom the Arabs distinguish by the name of Kahtan, appears to have taken up his residence, shortly after the confusion of tongues, in Arabia; where his thirteen sons extended themselves from Mesha to Sephar, a mountainous district in the south-eastern part of that peninsula; and where Joktan himself, according to the Arab historians, founded the kingdom of Yemen.

Ishmael, having been dismissed by Abraham, in the manner already related in the Jewish history, retired into the wilderness of Paran, where he became the father of a numerous and potent nation, of whom it was predicted that they should live in a state of perpetual enmity with the rest of mankind, and yet should never be wholly subjugated by any foreign power. The Arab writers assert, that he married the daughter of Modad, king of Hejaz, who was lineally descended from the founder of that kingdom; and, as the Arabs pronounce him the father of the greatest part of their nation, we may justly consider him and Joktan as the principal planters of Arabia. However, it is not probable that the Scenite Arabs were the only descendants of Ishmael, though they indisputably constituted the major part of them, and have retained the same disposition, power, and government, from

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the age of their progenitor to the present time.

The kingdom of Yemen was governed for a long series of years by princes of the tribe of Hamyar, the son of Saba, the great grandson of Kahtan, though it was, at length, translated to the descendants of his brother, Cahlan, who still retained the title of king of Hamyar. The princes of the Hamyarites had the general epithet of Tobba, or *successor*, as the Egyptian kings had that of Pharaoh, and the Roman emperors that of Cæsar. Of these kings nothing is related but their names, or such transactions as are too absurd or unimportant to merit a place in this work: suffice it, therefore, to say, that the monarchy subsisted about two thousand and twenty years; and, at the expiration of that time, fell into the hands of the great impostor Mahomet.

The kingdom of Hira was founded in Irak by a descendant of Cahlan, named Malec; but, after three descents, the crown was transferred, by marriage, to the Lackhmians. These princes, whose general epithet was Mondar, preserved the regal authority, notwithstanding some interruption from the Persians, till the khalifat of Abubecr, when Al Mondar Maghrur, the last king, was deprived of his life and crown by the victorious Khaled Ebn al Walid. This monarchy, according to Ahmed Ebn Yusef, existed, under the Mondars, for the space of six hundred and twenty-two years and eight months.

The founders of the kingdom of Ghassan were of the tribe of Azd, and settled in Syria-Damascena, in the vicinage of a water called Ghassan, whence they derived their name. Having expelled

pelled the Dajaamian Arabs, who were of the tribe of Salih, they made themselves masters of a very considerable territory, and established a monarchy, which subsisted, according to the most accurate computation, six hundred and sixteen years.

The kingdom of Hejaz was founded by Jorham, the son of Kahtan, and governed by his descendants till the time of Ishmael, who espoused the daughter of Modad. Some authors are of opinion that Kidar, Ishmael's son, received the crown from one of his uncles; but it is generally supposed that the posterity of Ishmael expelled the Jorhamites, who retired to Johainah, and were there destroyed by an inundation.

Shortly after this period the kingdom of Hejaz was divided among the chiefs, or heads of tribes, and was governed almost in the same manner as is now practised by the Arabs of the Desert. The tribe of Khozaah, after the inundation of Al Arem, fixed their residence in the valley of Marri, near Mecca, and there founded an aristocracy, assuming both the government of the adjacent city and the care of the temple. They retained these acquisitions for several ages, till, at length, one Kosa, of the tribe of Koreish, purchased the keys and custody of the temple, from Abu Gabshan, and soon afterward divested the tribe of Khozaah of the civil government of Mecca. There were also some other tribes which had princes of their own, and formed independent states; but all of these were greatly inferior to the kingdoms of Yemen, Hira, Ghassan, and Hejaz.

EMPIRES

EMPIRES OF NICE AND TRAPEZOND.

SECTION I.

NICE.

THEODORE Lascaris having fled, from the persecution of his tyrannical father-in-law, to Bithynia, was received with the warmest demonstrations of joy by the inhabitants; and enabled, by their assistance, to make himself master of Phrygia, Mysia, Lydia, and Ionia, from the Mæander to the Euxine Sea. These provinces he erected into a new empire, called the empire of Nice, from the famous city which he made his imperial residence; and, by his extraordinary valour and conduct, secured these important acquisitions to himself and his successors; though both the Turks and Latins used the most strenuous exertions against him for the space of eighteen years. A.D. 1204.

On the demise of this prince the government devolved, by legacy, on his son-in-law, John Ducas, who was accordingly crowned at Nice by the patriarch Manuel, and proved equally brave and successful with his celebrated predecessor. He extended his conquests not only in Asia, but also in Europe, and almost to the gates of Constantinople; he achieved many brilliant victories over the Turks A.D. 1222.

 and

and Latins in pitched engagements; and died, universally regretted by his subjects, in the sixty-second year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign.

A. D. 1225. He was succeeded by Theodore Lascaris, who, during his short reign, was attended with great success against the despot of Epirus and the Bulgarians. However he acted diametrically opposite to the interests of his people in recalling the traitor Michael Palæologus, and restoring him to his former dignity. Theodore died in the third year of his reign, and left the empire to his son, under the guardianship of Arsenius, the patriarch of Nice, and one Muzalo, a person of mean extraction, but of consummate merit, and approved fidelity.

The promotion of Muzalo having excited the envy of the Nicean nobility, a select number of them resolved to dispatch him on the demise of Theodore, and accordingly caused him to be assassinated during the celebration of the deceased monarch's funeral obsequies. Palæologus then caused himself to be chosen guardian of the young emperor, and to be declared protector of the empire, without any regard to Arsenius, whose merit and integrity were inimical to the usurper's designs.

On the news of a signal victory gained over the despot of Epirus, many, both of the nobles and populace, saluted Palæologus with the imperial title; but, as the patriarch threatened to excommunicate both him and his adherents for this treasonable act, the usurper bound himself under a solemn oath to resign the empire to the lawful heir as soon as he should become of age. However, on his taking Constantinople from the Latins,

Latins, in the second year of his reign, he ordered the eyes of the unfortunate prince to be put out; removed the seat of empire to Constantinople, and caused himself to be solemnly crowned emperor of the East. Such was the end of the Nicean empire, about fifty-seven years after its foundation.

TRAPEZOND.

SHORTLY after the reduction of Constantinople by the Latins, Alexius Commenus, surnamed the Great, and his brother David, seized on the provinces of Colchis, Galatia, Paphlagonia, and Cappadocia, with several cities of note; and Alexius fixed his imperial residence at Trapezond, where he established himself in possession of his new territories, and formed an alliance with Baldwin, emperor of Constantinople. He does not seem, however, to have taken the imperial title, most authors supposing that it was either his grandson or great-grandson who first assumed it; and that he contented himself with the title of duke or lord of Trapezond.

Of his two immediate successors nothing satisfactory has been recorded by historians.

John Commenus, supposed to have been the first who assumed the title of emperor, seems to have been confirmed in his dignities by Michael Palæologus, who invited him to Constantinople, and gave him his daughter, Eudocia, in marriage.

age. He was earnestly importuned, by pope Nicolas IV. to engage in a crusade about the year 1291; and died about four years after, leaving two sons by Eudocia, one of whom succeeded to the empire, and the other was taken in his infancy to Constantinople.

Alexius the Second was left, by his father's will, under the guardianship of Andronicus Palæologus the elder. He espoused an Iberian princess; and formed an alliance with the Genoese, after having defeated them in battle.

He was succeeded by his son Basilius, who was compelled to take up arms in order to gain possession of his lawful inheritance; and was strongly invited by pope John XXII. to embrace the doctrines of the Romish Church.

Basilius the Second espoused Irene Palæologina, the daughter of Andronicus the younger; but, having afterward divorced her, in order to make way for another woman of the same name, he was assassinated by her contrivance, and she endeavoured to establish herself on the throne of Trapezond. But her design being made public, an insurrection ensued; and, after an obstinate struggle, the sceptre was placed in the hands of one of the deceased king's sons, whose Christian name does not occur in history.

Alexius the Third is said to have married a lady of the Cantacuzenian family, who carried on a scandalous intrigue with the keeper of the imperial wardrobe. The emperor's eldest son being apprised of this circumstance, murdered the paramour, and attempted to dispatch both the empress and his father, but was frustrated in his attention, and compelled to retire into Spain. However, he soon returned with

some

some Spaniards and Genoese, and having privately assassinated Alexius, took possession of the throne.

John the Second, having by this nefarious action gained possession of the empire, found himself attacked on all sides by the Turks, and was soon compelled to pay an annual tribute of three thousand ducats to Amurath, to enjoy without disturbance his ill acquired dominions. At his death he left one son, named Alexius, who was afterward taken captive by Mohammed at the reduction of Trapezond; and a daughter, called Catharina Commena, who was given in marriage to Asan Beigh.

David Commenus, a man of a savage and cowardly disposition, resolved to take advantage of his nephew's minority, and accordingly usurped the crown. But he did not long enjoy his acquisition, for Mohammed the Second, surnamed the Great declared war against him; invested his metropolis by sea and land; and led both David and all his family in triumph to Constantinople, whence they were removed to Adrianople, and inhumanly massacred, except the youngest son, who embraced the faith of Mahomet, and one of his sisters, who became the victor's concubine. Such was the melancholy catastrophe of the Trapezontine empire in the two hundred and fifty-eighth year of its foundation.

ANCIENT SPANIARDS.

THE tract of country anciently distinguished by the names Iberia, Hesperia, and Hispania, but now generally known by that of Spain, was situated between ten and three degrees of east longitude, and between forty-six and forty-four degrees of north latitude; being bounded on the north by the Pyrenean mountains; on the east by the Mediterranean; on the south by the Straits of Gibraltar; and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean.

The Spaniards have endeavoured to derive their origin from Tubal, the fifth son of Japhet, whom they affirm to have reigned in Spain from the year of the world 1799 to 1914, and from whom they deduce a tedious series of monarchs down to three Geryons, who were slain by the Egyptian Hercules. From this hero also they draw an æra down to the year of the world 3000, in which they allow the Celtes to have made their first entrance into their country. So that according to these historians, Spain had subsisted as a regular monarchy for the space of one thousand two hundred and twenty-six years before the arrival of the Celtes. This, however, is generally regarded as altogether fabulous; and the most probable hypothesis relative to this nation is, that they were decended from Gomer, the eldest son of Japhet, whose posterity peopled Europe at least as far as the Danube and Rhine.

With respect to the religion of the ancient Spaniards, whether we regard them as the posterity

terity of Gomer, or of his brother Tubal, it may be rationally supposed that they were originally instructed in the worship of the true God, and probably adhered for a long series of years to the practices of the old patriarchs. But as their country was afterward invaded by the Egyptians, Tyrians, Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and various other nations, it is but reasonable to imagine that a strange diversity of religious opinions and ceremonies were gradually introduced. However, after the invasion of the Romans, a considerable change was effected in the system of their religion, and under the reign of Ariamirus, king of the Sueves, they embraced the faith of the gospel.

The government of the Spaniards was probably monarchical from their first settling in Europe, but as they increased in numbers, and augmented their territories, they divided themselves into a multiplicity of petty kingdoms and commonwealths.

From the expulsion of the Carthaginians to the reign of Tiberius, Spain was governed by consuls, prætors, and præsides; for L. Piso appears to have been prætor of the Hither Spain in his time; a rescript of Adrian is directed to the consul of Bætica; and the præsides are mentioned in subsequent reigns, though that title was frequently given to the governors of inferior provinces. However, the country remained under the government of forty-six emperors from Augustus, who is said to have completed its subjugation, till Honorius, in whose reign the Romans were expelled by the Vandals, Alans, and Suevi. Under the Goths it had nineteen kings during the space of two hundred years, that is from Athanaric,

naric, who commenced his reign in the year of the Christian æra 369 to Leovigild 569. The Suevi reigned in Gallicia one hundred and seventy seven years, from Hermeric A. D. 408 to Andeca 581. Lastly, the united kingdoms of the Goths and Suevi subsisted a hundred and twenty-seven years, from the accession of Reccaredus, the first orthodox king of the Goths, A. D. 568, to the subversion of the monarchy by the Moors in 713.

The original language of the ancient Spaniards was the old Celtic; and it has been remarked that the modern Spanish preserves more of the masculine grandeur, beauty, and energy of this tongue, than any other in Europe.

That the Spaniards were not deficient in natural genius is evident from the great number of famous men which their country has produced, among whom we may reckon the famed stoic Seneca, the learned orator Quintilian, and the great cosmographer Pomponius Mela. It also appears from Strabo, that the liberal arts began to flourish here in very early ages, as the Turdetani, a people of Bætica, were possessed of a vast number of volumes of antiquity, codes of laws written in verse, and many pieces of poetry.

In the art of war the Spaniards had much the advantage of the Gauls, Germans, and other nations of Celtic extraction, as they received many improvements from the belligerent nations, with whom they were frequently at war, and their weapons were superior to many of their contemporaries.

The education of their children consisted chiefly in habituating them to such food and exercise as rendered them active, and athletic; in inspiring them with an enthusiastic love of li-

berty; and in training them up to martial deeds. Hence, the whole nation seemed, upon every occasion, to prefer death to ignominy, and regarded it as the greatest of blessings to perish in defence of their native land and privileges.

Their country was so advantageously situated for commerce, and abounded with so many excellent commodities, that most of the trading nations of Europe, Asia, and Africa, were tempted to make settlements among them, and even to subdue them; so that scarcely any kingdom on the face of the globe ever passed under such a variety of masters. Egyptians, Phœnicians, Tyrians, Carthaginians, Greeks, Romans, Gauls, Germans, Goths, Vandals, and Moors, have had their particular settlements in it, and the greatest part of them have promoted its trade and navigation.

To close our remarks on the ancient Spaniards, it must be observed, that they inherited all the virtues of their progenitors the Celtes, and possessed fewer vices than the generality of their contemporaries. Sobriety, magnanimity, courage, and hospitality, were numbered among their most striking characteristics; and their fidelity was so universally admired, that several of the Roman emperors chose them for their body-guard, in preference to other nations. It must, indeed, be acknowledged, that they inherited the pride, cruelty, indolence, and superstition of the ancient Celtes; but their temperance and frugality formed a striking contrast to the bacchanalian excesses of the Gauls and Germans; and they consequently preserved themselves from those fatal quarrels which appear to have been extremely prevalent among their neighbours.

GAULS.

THE Gauls, according to ancient historians, appear to have been either the immediate descendants of the Celtes, or the same people under a more modern name, which was probably given them by their neighbours; whilst they retained the original one of Gomerai, or descendants of Gomer. The name, therefore, of Gaul or Gallia is not only foreign, but of a more recent date, as are likewise the other appellatives by which the Roman authors distinguish one part of their country from another; as Cisalpina or Citerior, Transalpina or Ulterior, and Subalpina: for the inhabitants were formerly better known by the name of Celtes, and the country, upon the whole, by that of Celto-Gallia. Julius Cæsar, afterwards, distinguished the whole country under the names of Belgia, Aquitania, and Gallia Propria; and this last was subdivided into Comata, Brachata, and Togata.

The religion of the Gauls strictly resembled that of the ancient Celtes (which has been * already described) till the time of their subjugation to the Romans: but in the time of Augustus a considerable change took place; and, after a few subsequent reigns, they became so enamoured with the pageantry of polytheism, that they erected a prodigious number of statues,

* Vide Vol. VIII. page 306.

altars,

altars and temples; and even paid divine honours to lakes, rivers, marshes, and fountains.

The Gauls, though bearing the same name, and using the same language and customs, appear to have been subject to different governments; some of which were monarchical, others aristocratical, and others partaking partly of aristocracy and partly of democracy.

Their language is universally allowed to have been the old Celtic or Gomerian, which is still preserved, at least in a great measure, in many parts of Europe, particularly in Biscay, Brittany, Cornwall, Ireland, the Hebrides, Highlands of Scotland, and North Wales. They do not appear to have had, originally, any characters of their own, but, in process of time, adopted the Greek letters, for the purpose of facilitating their commerce, which seems to have been very considerable, both from the veneration which they expressed toward Mercury, as the god of traffic, and from a great number of ancient inscriptions dedicated, by the Gaulish merchants, to their deities.

With respect to their arts, next to the military, which, though their especial favorite, was but indifferently cultivated, eloquence was that wherein they prided themselves most, and which seemed most natural to them. Their youth were commonly instructed out of those poems which were composed by the bards and druids; heroic verses were either sung or recited on all public occasions; and they represented Mercury, the god of eloquence, with the symbols of Hercules, to show what power that art had over them above all others

Their military discipline cannot now be accurately described; but, from the circumstances of their falling in such vast multitudes upon the enemy, without either taking the advantage of ground, or dividing their armies as occasion required, it appears to have been very imperfect. Their chief talent consisted in pouring in their troops with incredible speed and fury; in surmounting all obstacles that fell in their way; and in maintaining the combat with an intrepidity almost peculiar to themselves: but when all these efforts failed, they either dispatched themselves, or else prevailed upon their friends to kill them. Their only weapons were bows and arrows, or swords and lances, with which they performed such astonishing feats as rendered them, for a considerable time, the objects of terror to all their enemies. They were utter strangers to the warlike machines used by other nations in sieges; and held the cuirass, helmet, and other defensive armour, in the utmost contempt. However, much of their success has been justly attributed to their surprising dexterity in the management of their cavalry and armed chariots.

The Gauls, like all other northern nations, were much addicted to the pleasures of the chace; and a solemn feast was annually celebrated by their professed huntsmen, in honour of the goddess Diana, to whom they presented, among other offerings, a purse containing a certain sum for every animal they had taken in the course of the year. They were also celebrated for their expertness in swimming and fowling; and horse and chariot races, tilts and tourna-

 ments,

ments, constituted their other favorite amusements.

Their customary dress consisted of a light vest and breeches; they wore their hair long, had collars about their necks, and bracelets on their arms. The Druids were always clothed in white when they officiated in their religious capacity, and the freemen appeared, on all public occasions, with their arms.

Of their marriages nothing satisfactory has been recorded. It appears, however, that polygamy was unlawful, and that the men possessed the power of life and death over their wives. The women were equally conspicuous with the warriors themselves, on account of their contempt of danger and death; and always exerted themselves in a most extraordinary manner to prevent their men from giving ground to the enemy.

The vices that have been generally attributed to the Gauls are those of ebriety, indolence, and ferocity; each of which they certainly inherited from their predecessors: but their social virtues were, by the confession of their enemies, more remarkable; among which we must particularize their justice, fidelity, and hospitable behaviour to strangers.

The earliest and most considerable irruption recorded of this people is that which they made into Italy, under their celebrated general, Bellovesus, who, crossing the Rhone and the Alps, defeated the Hetrurians in the vicinage of the Tesino, and took possession of that part of the country since distinguished by the names of Piedmont and Lombardy. B. C. 622.

 The

The Cœnomani, who dwelt between the rivers Seine and Loire, made the second grand expedition under their leader, Elitonis, and formed new settlements among the Brescians, Cremonese, Mantuans, Venetians, and Carniola.

The third was undertaken by the Ananes and Læves; the former of whom settled in Piacentia, on one side of the Po; and the latter in Novara, on the opposite bank.

In a fourth, the Boii and Lingones, having crossed the Pennine Alps, took up their residence on the south side of the Po, between Bologna and Ravenna.

The fifth was made, about two hundred years after that of Bellovesus, by the Senones, who were invited into Italy by an Hetrurian noble, and fixed themselves in Umbria. The incursion of this people, under Brennus, into Italy, has been already related in its * proper place.

The next expedition proved peculiarly unfortunate; for the Gauls who had previously settled in Italy invited their countrymen to assist them against the Romans; but these arrived in such prodigious numbers, that they became more dreadful than the Romans; so that they made no scruple to turn their arms against them, and put their whole army to flight. The Romans were greatly alarmed at the news of these proceedings, and, to frustrate the success of so numerous an enemy, they perpetrated the horrid superstition of burying a Greek and a Gaulish man and woman alive, in the ox-market: but they did not rely so implicitly on this barbarous sacrifice as to neglect their warlike preparations, when they received intelligence that the Gesatæ,

* Vide Vol. V. page 162.

another

another brave Gaulish nation, were invited to the assistance of their Italian countrymen. The approach of this fierce and warlike people spread the utmost terror and confusion through the Roman territories. However, a formidable army was raised for the defence of the country, and the ferocious invaders were overthrown with a prodigious loss; forty-thousand being killed on the field of battle, and ten thousand taken prisoners.

About the year of the world 3725, the Gauls, finding themselves overstocked at home, sent out three large colonies to seek new habitations. Brennus, the chief adviser of this expedition, headed one of the Gaulish armies; Cerethrius marched with the second into Thrace; and Belgius led the third into Illyricum and Macedonia. Brennus made an incursion into Pannonia, or Hungary; but finding the country inferior to his expectations, and hearing that Belgius, after acquiring an immense plunder, was utterly defeated, he hastened to Illyricum, under pretence of revenging his colleague. The army with which he entered that province consisted of one hundred and fifty thousand foot, and fifteen thousand horse: but, in consequence of a revolt among some of the officers, twenty thousand men marched into Thrace, and, with the assistance of Cerethrius, seized on Byzantium and the western coasts of Propontis.

In consequence of this defection, Brennus sent for fresh supplies from Gaul, and enlisted some Illyrians, with whom he marched toward Delphi, designing to plunder that opulent city and temple; but he suffered a dreadful repulse from a thunder storm and an earthquake, which de-

stroyed a considerable number of his men; and the Greek forces, pouring in from all parts, completed his overthrow. In this exigency Brennus assembled his chiefs, and, after advising them to slay all their wounded comrades, and to make as good a retreat as they could, he put an end to his own existence. Such of the soldiers as had escaped the enemy endeavoured to retire, pursuant to their leader's direction; but none of them ever returned to their own country.

Meanwhile the colonies under Leonorius marched to the Hellespont, and made themselves masters of Lysimachia and the Thracian Chersonesus, whence they crossed over into Asia, and established Nicomedes in his paternal kingdom. For this important service Nicomedes assigned them that part of Lesser Asia, which was afterward called Gallo-Græcia and Galatia. In process of time, these settlers, being confined in their territories, sent several colonies and auxiliary armies abroad, which greatly annoyed all their neighbours; but they were at length suppressed by the pro-consul of Asia, and compelled to live peaceably within their own boundaries.

The Romans were so seriously alarmed at the strength and number of the Gaulish nation, that they deemed it indispensably requisite to humble their pride, by leading armies into their country. After several trifling attempts, Q. Marcius, to whose lot this province had fallen by the death of his colleague in Numidia, opened a passage between the Alps and the Pyrenees; planted a colony in the country of the Volcæ Tectosagi; and founded the city of Narbo Marcius, which soon became the capital of the province. For these

these important services he was honoured with a triumph at Rome. His successor, Scaurus, subdued the Carni and Gentisci, two Gaulish nations of extraordinary bravery, and made some excellent roads to facilitate the progress of his Italian troops, for which he also was remunerated with triumphal honours.

The Cimbri and Teutones, alarmed at these repeated incursions, took up arms against the Romans, and gave them several overthrows, in one of which the general, Popilius, was compelled to submit to the ignominious ceremony of passing under the yoke. The Cimbri, in particular, had retaken some parts of Gaul, and especially the famous city of Thoulouse, where they consecrated an immense treasure to the amount of one hundred thousand pounds weight of gold, and the same of silver. Hereupon, Cæpio marched his army to retake it, and the inhabitants threw open their gates; nevertheless, he gave the city up to be plundered, and carried off all the sacred treasures. However, the Gauls were so exasperated at this outrage, that they attacked the invaders with irresistible fury, slaughtered near a hundred and forty thousand men, and pursued the remainder so closely, that only ten of the whole army escaped with their two generals. The triumphant barbarians, having thrown all the silver and gold into the Rhine, drowned all the horses, and murdered all the prisoners which they had taken; held a general council whether to march immediately into Italy, or to reduce those provinces which the Romans still possessed in Gaul; they agreed, however, to consult Emilius Scaurus, whom they had taken captive in a former engagement, and who

strove

strove to deter them from entering the territories of his republic; but his bold speech was rewarded with death by Boiorix, king of the Cimbri.

The Roman senate, dreading a fresh irruption of these warlike barbarians, recalled Marius from Numidia; and, having remunerated his late services with a triumph, appointed him general against the enemy, and Sylla to serve under him. They accordingly departed, and gained such important advantages, that the Gauls became dispirited, and remained within their own borders, till Orgetorix persuaded his countrymen, the Helvetii, to burn their villages, and to go in quest of new conquests.

At this juncture the whole country of Gaul fell to the lot of Julius Cæsar, and that illustrious Roman exerted himself in so extraordinary a manner, that the Helvetii were defeated with dreadful slaughter; the Belgæ, the Nervii, and the Veneti, who had taken up arms for their common preservation, were successively overthrown; the valiant Vercingetorix was compelled to surrender at discretion; and the reduction of Uxellodunum completed the conquest of Gaul, from the Alps and Pyrenean mountains to the Rhine: all which extensive tract was now provinciated and governed by a prætor sent thither from Rome.

Shortly after this period Gaul was divided into sixteen provinces; each of which groaned, more or less, under the Roman tyranny, according to the disposition of the emperors or prætors who ruled over them. However, we do not read of any revolt among the inhabitants till the reign of Nero, when the brave Julius Vindex, then governor of Celtic Gaul, resolved to deliver his

country

country from slavery, and the empire from so sanguinary a tyrant. This design was no sooner made public, than the discontented Gauls flocked to him from all quarters, and quickly formed an army of a hundred thousand men; but they were totally defeated by Rufus Virginius, and their unfortunate leader terminated his existence by an act of suicide. In the reign of Galba they were heavily oppressed and loaded with taxes, but durst not make any resistance. Adrian visited their country in his progress through the empire; built several magnificent edifices; and left, wherever he passed, some tokens of his munificence. Gaul was again made the theatre of war in the remarkable conflict between Posthumius and Gallienus, the former of whom had been acknowledged emperor, for some important services which he had rendered to the natives; but was afterward murdered by his own soldiers. Shortly after this occurrence, Aurelian marched against the rebellious Gauls, (who had invested Tetricus with the imperial dignity) and reduced them to obedience. Under Constantine their country was divided into seventeen provinces, six of which were styled consular, and the rest under certain presidents who resided in their respective capitals.

Such was the state and government of Gaul previous to the incursions of the Goths, the Franks, the Burgundians, and some other nations, whose histories will appear in the sequel.

ANCIENT GERMANS.

GERMANY, according * to the Roman authors, was bounded by the Hercynian forest on the north; by Scythia and Sarmatia on the east; by the Danube on the south; and by the Rhine on the west. It is described, both by Cæsar and Tacitus, as a barren and uncultivated tract, equally dreadful on account of its steril soil, unwholesome bogs, impervious forests, and inclement winds. But, on the arrival of the Romans, agriculture was introduced with tolerable success; and the natives were gradually instructed in those useful arts which they had formerly despised as altogether unworthy of attention.

As the Germans were descended from the same stock as their neighbours the Gauls, they received their religion, laws, and customs from the same hand; and retained them, with few exceptions, for a long series of ages. Like the Gauls, they acknowledged one supreme deity under the name of Esus; expressed the most profound veneration for the leaves, fruit, and mistletoe of the oak; and usually performed their devotion in sacred groves, woods, or forests. Their inferior deities were Jupiter, Mars

* The *empire* of Germany is bounded by Denmark, the German Ocean, and the Baltic on the north; by Bohemia, Poland, and Hungary on the east; by Switzerland and the Alps on the south; and by France and the Netherlands on the west.

or Odin, Mercury, Venus, Diana, &c. Of their sacrifices, horses were accounted the most acceptable: but their altars, like those of most barbarous nations, were occasionally sprinkled with human blood.

With respect to their ancient laws and government, we can only observe, that they discover those evident marks by which men were gradually obliged to form themselves into communities for their general benefit and preservation. Every tribe appears to have had an independent form of government; and to have held their national councils at least once a year, when they deliberated concerning peace or war, the nomination of officers, both civil and military; the sending out colonies or auxiliaries; and all other matters of importance.

In those states which were under a monarchical government, no appeal was made to the sovereign on subjects of public concern; neither did he receive any other revenue than a part of the fines and such voluntary offerings as the people thought fit to make of their cattle, or the fruits of the earth. Their expences, however, were proportionably small, as all their subjects, capable of bearing arms, were obliged to follow them to battle; and their nobles thought it a peculiar honour to make part of their retinue. The subjects were divided into several ranks, such as nobles, free born, freedmen, and bondmen; in each of which classes those were most esteemed who had signalized themselves by their prudence or heroism. Cowardice or neglect of duty was punished with the utmost severity among the soldiery; though murderers were only mulcted in such a fine as was deemed a sufficient

ficient compensation to the family for their loss. In disputes and accusations, whenever the case appeared dubious or intricate, they decided either by religious auguries, or by single combat; for in either of these they esteemed Providence as the chief director, and therefore submitted implicitly to its unerring judgment. Their other laws were merely preserved among themselves by oral tradition.

The ancient Germans, excepting those who resided in the maritime parts of the country, and had made some progress in ship-building and navigation, were totally ignorant of science, and, in all probability, strangers to the use of letters. Their greatest skill consisted in the knowledge and application of certain medicinal herbs. The heroic deeds of their warriors were indeed couched in verse, and sung by the people, upon solemn occasions, to the sound of various instruments; but the Romans have given a truly frightful description both of the German music and poetry.

Of their marriage ceremonies we have no satisfactory accounts; but it appears that none of the people were polygamists, except some few of their nobles; and even these allowed themselves a plurality of wives, rather for ostentation than pleasure. The German women participated with their husbands not only in the care of their domestic concerns, and the tuition of their children, but also in the fatigues and perils of war; and those who did not follow their deceased husbands by some violent death, were excluded from the valhalla or paradise of Odin.

The funerals of the ancient Germans were performed with the same plainness and simplicity

city which they observed in all other things; the only grandeur which they affected in them was to burn the bodies of their nobles with some peculiar kinds of wood; but the funeral pile was neither decorated with the vestments and furniture of the deceased, nor perfumed with odoriferous gums and herbs. It must, however, be acknowledged, that on these, as on most other solemn occasions, they abandoned themselves to excessive drinking; and it may be said of them, above all the other descendants of the ancient Celtes, that their hospitality consisted much more in the quantity of their strong liquors than in the elegance of their entertainments.

The first important transaction of the ancient Germans, noticed by historians, is the incursion of one of their fiercest tribes into a canton of Gaul, where they formed a settlement, and behaved so haughtily toward their neighbours, that they soon obtained the epithet of Belgæ, which, in the old Teutonic language, signifies fierce or quarrelsome. They afterward made a descent upon Britain, and, having chased the natives into the interior, established themselves in new habitations on different parts of the coast.

The Cimbri and Teutones, being either straitened for room, or invited by the beauty of a milder climate, quitted their ancient settlements during the consulate of Papyrius Carbo, and penetrated into Italy, where they defeated the Romans in several pitched battles, and gained many important advantages; but they were at length totally overthrown by the consul Marius; and those who escaped the avenging sword were com-

compelled to retire precipitately to their own country, whence they afterward sent a submissive embassy to the emperor Augustus. These people are mentioned by authors of a later date as the most warlike of the northern Germans; but, as nothing further occurs respecting their transactions, it is highly probable that their name was soon lost in that of their more powerful neighbours, the Saxons.

The next excursion recorded of the Germans is that which happened in the time of Julius Cæsar, who, from motives of policy, fomented a quarrel between the Ædui and the Averni, two of the most potent nations in Gaul. The latter of these being allied with the Sequani, thought proper to crave the assistance of the Germans; and accordingly obtained a complete victory over their enemies, the Ædui; but Ariovistus, the German king, became so enamoured of the country which he had engaged to defend, that he compelled the inhabitants to evacuate the greatest part of it, in order to afford a settlement for his troops. Here he established himself with the assistance of forty thousand Harudes; and prevailed on Julius Cæsar to allow him the regal title; but he was shortly afterward deposed by the Roman consul, and his forces, having suffered a complete overthrow, were obliged to disperse in the utmost confusion.

The Belgæ, alarmed at the success of the Romans, formed an alliance with the Celtes and Gauls, in order to drive the formidable enemy farther from their neighbourhood. But Julius Cæsar soon found means to sow divisions among their

their allies, and eventually subjugated the whole Belgic nation. Some time after the reduction of this warlike people, the Tencteri and the Usipetes, two other German tribes, made an incursion into Gaul, and formed some new settlements in the neighbourhood of the Condrusi and Eburones; but Cæsar overthrew them with great slaughter, and, after throwing a bridge across the Rhine, pursued the fugitives into their own country, which he ravaged without mercy.

During the reign of Augustus, who had promulgated some edicts against the barbarous superstitions of the Druids, the Germans crossed the Rhine, and committed some depredations on the territories of the empire; but they were vigorously attacked both by Agrippa and Lollius, and driven back with considerable loss.

About the time of the declension of the Western empire, this warlike nation made many incursions into the provinces of Italy, Gaul, and Spain, which proved so successful, that Odoacer, king of the Heruli, was enabled to wrest the empire from the hands of Augustulus, as we have already noticed in the history of Rome.

The Heruli had not long taken possession of Italy before they were expelled by the Ostrogoths, and these were at length driven out by Justinian; so that the province was again annexed to the Eastern empire; but it was so effectually weakened during the exarchate of Ravenna, that the popes found means to seize the temporal as well as spiritual jurisdiction over a considerable portion of it; whilst the Lombards took possession of another part, and erected a new kingdom. However, this nation gave the pontiffs so much uneasiness, that Pope Adrian I.

was compelled to apply for assistance to Charlemagne, who accordingly entered Italy with a numerous army, and, having defeated Desidorius, caused himself to be crowned king of Lombardy.

Upon this occasion, the Pope, with the consent of the Roman people, caused his royal deliverer to be declared emperor, and erected a new western empire; but with this stipulation, that the pontiff should still reside at Rome, while Charlemagne should fix his imperial residence in Germany.

ANCIENT BRITONS.

THE island anciently called Albion *, but now distinguished by the name of Great Britain, is situated between the fiftieth and fifty-ninth degrees of north latitude: being bounded on the north by the Northern Ocean; on the west by the Vergivian or Irish sea; on the east by the German Ocean; and on the south by the British channel. Its greatest length from north to south is about five hundred and sixty miles; its breadth various; and its compass, allowing for the irregularities of the coast, about eighteen hundred miles. Its pleasantness and fertility induced Isaacius Tzetzes to number it among the Fortunate Islands, described by the poets, where the face of nature smiled with a perpetual spring; and it was, in former times, the granary of the western empire; for immense quantities of corn were annually transported from hence for the supply of the armies on the frontiers of Germany.

The southern parts of Britain are said to have been first peopled by the Gauls, to whom the inhabitants of this division bore a striking resemblance in their customs, manners, language, religion, government, and mode of fighting. As

* The island which now comprehends the kingdoms of England and Scotland, and the principality of Wales, was anciently styled *Albion* by way of distinction; the name of *Britain* being then common to all the islands that surround it.

for the more northern inhabitants, Tacitus infers, from the formation of their limbs, and other circumstances, that they came originally from Germany.

The Picts, who occupied the eastern parts of the country which lay to the northward of the Tyne, are supposed, by Bede, to have come by sea from Scythia, and to have formed a settlement in Britain, with the assistance of the Scots, who supplied them with wives to perpetuate their colony, on condition that, in all disputes concerning the succession, they should prefer the female to the male line of their former kings. As no particular notice has been taken of the Picts previously to the time of Ammianus Marcellinus, who lived about the end of the fourth century, many writers have conceived that they were not a distinct people from the Britons, but merely such members of that nation as retired into the northern parts of their island, to elude the tyranny of the Romans; and who, continuing to paint their bodies, were called *Picts*, to distinguish them from those who had laid aside that practice, and adopted the customs of their oppressors. However, it is certain that the Picts were, for several ages, a distinct nation, differing both from the Scots and Britons, not only in their customs, but in their language and civil institutions.

With respect to the origin of the Scots, Bede asserts that they came from Ireland, under the conduct of a chief called Reuda, and made themselves masters of certain territories in the country of the Picts. "From this Reuda," says the same historian, "they are called, to this day, Dabreddini; the word *dal*, in their language, signifying

signifying *share* or *portion*." This, however, in all probability, is merely conjectural.

The manners, customs, religion, and government of the Ancient Britons have been accurately described by Julius Cæsar, and some others, who had an opportunity of gaining the most ample intelligence, after the Romans had obtained possession of the island. According to these authors, the country was well peopled, and abundantly stocked with cattle. The towns, or rather villages, were composed of wretched huts, situated at a small distance from each other, and generally in the centre of a wood; the avenues to which were defended with such trees as had been felled to clear the ground, or with slight ramparts of earth. The inhabitants stained their bodies with the juice of woad, of an azure colour, and wore long hair; but shaved the rest of their bodies, except the upper lip. Their usual food consisted in milk, fruits, and game; copper or iron plates, weighed by a certain standard, supplied the place of money; and no other raiment was worn than was absolutely necessary for the preservation of decency. Diodorus Siculus, speaking of the manners and customs of this people, says—"Their houses are constructed with reeds or wood; they lay up their corn in granaries, taking no more thence than they consume in one day; in their dealings they are simple and honest; their mode of living is remote from the luxury of other nations; and their island abounds with men who are subject to various sovereigns." Dio Cassius observes, respecting the northern Britains, that they were total strangers to agriculture, subsisting chiefly on game and fruit; that they lived

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in their huts almost naked, and had their wives in common; that the chief authority was vested in the people; and that their principal arms were a shield and a short spear; to the lower end of which was fastened a ball of brass, to terrify the enemy with its noise when they shook it. The same people are described by Herodion and Solinus as girding their waists and necks with iron, by way of ornament; as making deep incisions in various parts of their bodies, and staining them with a blue liquid, in order to represent the shapes of flowers, trees, and animals.

The religion of the Ancient Britons was nearly similar to that of their neighbours the Gauls. They adored Jupiter, under the name of Taran or Taramis, which, in the ancient British language, signified *thunder*. They worshipped Diana, under the name of Camma; and expressed the highest veneration toward Andate, their goddess of victory, who had a temple at Camalodunum, now Malden, in Essex. Their other deities were Tutates, the god of journies, supposed to have been the same with Mercury; Hesus, the god of war, or the Mars of the Romans; and Beleus, or Apollo, who is also supposed to have been called Belatucardus, the inscription, Deo Belatucardo, being found on several monuments of antiquity.

The direction of all religious concerns was vested in the Druids, who were held, both by the Britons and Gauls, in such repute, that their authority was almost absolute. Their name was probably derived from the British word *deru*, signifying an *oak*, because their usual residence was in groves of oaks; and the branches, leaves,

leaves, or mistletoe, of that tree were always used in the performance of their public worship. To these men belonged the care of public and private sacrifices, the interpretation of religion, the decision of controversies, and the administration of justice. The British youth, particularly the nobles, were placed under their tuition; and they enjoyed an exemption from all military duties, taxes, and imposts. Besides the Druids, there were priests of an inferior rank, called bards, whose chief employment consisted in celebrating the achievements of their heroes, and singing them, on solemn occasions, to the sound of the harp.

The civil government of Britain seems to have borne a striking resemblance to that of Gaul; for the whole country was divided into several small states, with a chief over each, whom authors have generally dignified with the regal title. Of these chiefs, or petty monarchs, Cæsar mentions four in the small compass of Kent; but whether their states were hereditary or elective is no where satisfactorily recorded. In any public exigence, one of the British kings was, by universal consent, chosen commander in chief of all their forces: thus, when Cæsar invaded the island, the chief command was conferred upon Cassibelanus; and when the Britons endeavoured to throw off their yoke, under the reign of Claudius, Caractacus, king of the Silures, was unanimously chosen general.

With respect to the division of the country, that part which comprehends the kingdom of England, and the principality of Wales, was anciently divided into seventeen little states, whereof the inhabitants were called Danmonii,

Durotriges,

Durotriges, Belgæ, Attrebatii, Regni, Cantii, Dobuni, Cattieuchlani, Trinobantes, Iceni, Coritani, Cornavii, Silures, Dimetæ, Ordovices, Brigantes, and Ottadini.

The Danmonii were situated in that part of Britain which stands a considerable way toward the west, and is bounded by the Severn sea on the north; by the British ocean on the south; and by St. George's channel on the west. In the tract now comprehending the counties of Cornwall and Devon, Ptolemy notices the estuary Vexalla, formed by the confluence of the two rivers Pedredus and Ivellus, now the Parrett and the Ill; the promontory of Hercules, and the promontory Belerium, which is the most western part of the island, now known by the name of the Land's End. The principal places, mentioned by the same geographer, on the southern coast, were, Voliba, now Falmouth; the mouth of the Tamara, on which is now situated the town of Plymouth; and the mouth of the Isca, now the Ex. The chief inland towns were Isca-Danmoniorum, Exeter; Tamare, Tavistock; and Uxella, according to Camden, Lestwithiel.

The Durotriges were seated to the east of the Danmonii, in that tract which is now called Dorsetshire. In this part of the county Ptolemy notices one place only, which he calls Dunium. It is, however, generally agreed among the learned, that, instead of Dunium, we should read Durnium; and that this was the ancient name of Dorchester, the principal town in the county of Dorset.

The Belgæ appear to have occupied Somersetshire, Wiltshire, and Hampshire. Ptolemy notices, among their most considerable towns,

those of Magnus Portus, Portsmouth; Trisantonis Portus, Southampton; Venta Belgarum, Winchester; Aquæcalidæ, Bath; and Iscalis, now Ilchester.

The Attrebatii, or inhabitants of Berkshire, are said to have come originally from Belgic Gaul, and to have retained their ancient name in their new settlement. Their chief city was Calcua, now Wallingford. Antoninus mentions another place called Spinæ, which is at present a small village near Newbury.

The Regni inhabited a tract of country comprehending Surry, Sussex, and part of the sea-coast of Hampshire. Ptolemy mentions only one city, viz. Noviomagus, in this part of the island; but Antoninus notices Othona, the site of the present Hastings; Portus Adurni, now the small village of Ederington; and Regnum, now Ringwood, whither the Regni are said to have fled for protection from their invaders.

The Cantii inhabited that portion of country, on the east of the Belgæ and Attrebatii, which is now distinguished by the name of Kent. Their chief towns appear to have been Durovernum, Durobrivis, Durolenum, Portus Dubris, Regullium, and Portus Lemanis; now Canterbury, Rochester, Lenham, Dover, Reculver, and Lime.

The Dobunii are placed, by Ptolemy, on the north side of the Thames, in the counties of Gloucestershire and Oxfordshire. The principal places in this district were Durocornovium, which stood on the site of the present town of Cirencester; Altone, Alvington; and Glevum, now Gloucester.

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The Cattieuchlani seem to have possessed the greatest part of Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, and Hertfordshire. Antoninus mentions the following places as belonging to this people:—Lactodorum, Bedford; Magiovinium, Ashwell; Durocobrivis, Hertford; and Verulamium, the ruins of which, near St. Albans, are still called Verulam. Before the arrival of Julius Cæsar, the Cattieuchlani had subjugated a considerable part of the country belonging to the Dobuni, and were constantly engaged in hostilities with their neighbours.

The Trinobantes inhabited the present counties of Middlesex and Essex, and possessed the city of Londinium, or London, which seems to have been founded about the time of Claudius, and is mentioned by Tacitus as a place famous for trade and the concourse of merchants, though not distinguished with the title of colony. The other principal towns of the Trinobantes were Durolitum, Cæsaromagus, Conomium, Camalodunum, and Colonia, now Leiton, Burghstead, Cannonden, Malden, and Colchester.

The Iceni occupied the country bordering on that of the Trinobantes, and comprehending the present counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Huntingdon. Their chief towns, as mentioned by Ptolemy and Antoninus, were Villa Faustini, Cambretonium, Sitomagus, Venta Icenorum, Garienis Ostium, Iciani, Brannodium, and Durobrivæ; now St. Edmond's Bury, Bretenham, Thetford, Castle, Yarmouth, Ichborough, Brancaster, and Dornford: to which we may add Camboritum, on the banks of the Cam, which are at present adorned with the town and university of Cambridge.

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The Coritani possessed an extensive territory bordering on the Iceni, and comprehending the counties of Northampton, Leicester, Rutland, Lincoln, Nottingham, and Derby. Their principal towns were Lindum, Lincoln; Tripontium, Towcester; Beneventa, Northampton; Ratæ, Leicester; Verometum, Burrowhill; and Agelocum, now Idleton. In this country are still visible the ruins of some ancient fortifications and military fences, said to have been erected by Ostorius, to prevent the irruption of those who inhabited Wales, and the northern parts of Britain.

The Cornavii were seated to the west of the Coritani, and seem to have possessed Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Staffordshire, Shropshire, and Cheshire. Their principal places were, Præsidium, Warwick; Branogenium, Worcester; Viroconium, out of whose ruins rose the present town of Shrewsbury; Pennocrucium, Penkridge; Deva, Chester; Condate, Congleton; and Rutunium, now Routon.

The Silures inhabited that district which is now distinguished by the name of South Wales, and comprises Radnorshire, Brecknockshire, and Glamorganshire, with the counties of Hereford and Monmouth. Tacitus is of opinion, that this people came originally from Spain, on account of their ruddy complexion, their curled hair, and their situation over against that country. In Herefordshire stood Bletium, now the Old Town on the Manor; Brecknock appears to have been inhabited in the Roman times. Some ruins of Venta Silurum, or the city Venta, are still to be seen in Monmouthshire. Phily castle, in Glamorganshire, is, in the opinion of Camden, the

the most noble piece of ancient architecture remaining in Britain.

The Dimetæ occupied the remaining part of South Wales, comprehending Caermarthenshire, Pembrokeshire, and Cardiganshire. Ptolemy, however, mentions none of their towns, except Loventium, at the mouth of the Tuerobis, and Maridunum, now Caermarthen.

The Ordovices are represented as a powerful and warlike nation, who possessed the district now called North Wales, and comprehending Montgomeryshire, Merionethshire, Caernarvonshire, Denbighshire, and Flintshire. In this county are the vestiges of several forts raised by the Romans to keep the natives in subjection; and opposite Caernarvonshire lies the island of Mona, now Anglesea, the ancient seat of the Druids; first attempted by Paulinus Suetonius, and afterward reduced by Agricola.

The Brigantes, a numerous and powerful people, are said, by ancient historians, to have inhabited Yorkshire, the bishoprick of Durham, Lancashire, Westmoreland, and Cumberland. In the west riding of Yorkshire stood the city of Danum, now called Doncaster; near the confluence of the Calder and the Arc stood Lageolium, now dwindled to the small village of Castleford; and Isurium Brigantum is supposed to have occupied the site of the present village of Aldborough, near Boroughbridge. Eboracum, now York, was both a Roman colony and a municipium, and contained a palace, in which the emperors Septimius Severus and Constantius Chlorus died. In the east riding, about seven miles from York, stood Dewentis, now the village Auldby; and on the promontory Ocellum,

or

or Holdernesse, stood the city of Prætorium, now Patrington. In Lancashire were Mancunium, Manchester; and Alone, Lancaster. In Westmoreland stood Veteræ, now the village Burgh, and Aballaba, which retains its ancient name, being called, by contraction, Apelby. In Cumberland the Romans threw up fortifications on such parts of the sea-coast as were convenient for landing; and various remains of antiquity are still visible in that county.

The Ottadini were situated in the tract of country now called Northumberland. Here are still to be seen many vestiges of antiquity; but the only places taken notice of by the ancients between Bremenium and Edinburgh Frith, are Tavi Ostium, the mouth of the Tweed; and Castra Alata, which most antiquaries suppose to be the same with Edinburgh.

Those who resided beyond the two friths are comprehended, by Dio Cassius, under the names of Mæatæ and Caledonii; the former of whom possessed the south part of Britannia Barbara, and the latter the north. From the Caledonii, or Dicalidones, the north part of Britain was called Caledonia; and they appear to have been a distinct nation from the Attacotti and Scotti, under the reign of Valentinian and Valens, for Ammianus Marcellinus, writing of that time, observes, "The Picts, under which denomination are comprehended the Dicalidones and the Vecturiones, the Attacotti likewise, a warlike nation, and the Scotti, roaming about, committed great devastations."

Nothing satisfactory can be advanced respecting the affairs of Britain before the time of Julius Cæsar, who, having subjugated all the warlike

nations on the opposite coast, conceived the design of bringing the Britons also under the dominion of Rome.

In order to facilitate the execution of this project, he dispatched C. Volusenus with a single galley to view the island, to learn the customs and manners of the inhabitants, and to get some knowledge of their ports and havens; while the Roman troops were drawn up in the country of the Morini, now Picardy, and a numerous fleet lay at anchor in readiness for the destined expedition. The Britons, receiving intelligence of these preparations, thought proper to elude the impending danger by voluntary concession, and accordingly sent an embassy to Cæsar, offering to submit to the authority of Rome, and to deliver hostages for their fidelity. Cæsar received the ambassadors with great kindness, and sent them back with the warmest assurances of friendship, but at the same time ordered Comius, whom he had made king of the Atrebates, to attend them into Britain, in order to gain a competent knowledge of their affairs, and to prepare them for a visit from the Romans.

Cæsar, having taken these precautions, and received some further intelligence from Volusenus, embarked two legions on board eighty transports, and ordered eighteen more, which were wind-bound at a port about eight miles distant, to convey over the cavalry. He then weighed anchor, about the third watch, and arrived in a few hours on the British coast; but perceiving the hills and cliffs over the sea completely covered with armed men, who, from that station, might securely gall his troops with their darts, and thus prevent his landing; he lay by till

till the afternoon, waiting for a reinforcement of ships, in order to discover another place where he might effect his design with less danger. Upon their joining the fleet he called a council of war, and, having acquainted his officer with the intelligence he had received from Volusenus, he set sail, and proceeded about eight miles farther, when he came to an anchor at a plain and open shore.

Here, however, he found the British chariots and cavalry drawn up to oppose his landing, and a material difficulty proceeded from the largeness of his vessels, which required a considerable depth of water, so that the soldiers, encumbered as they were with heavy armour, were obliged to leap into the sea, and wade, with extreme difficulty, toward the enemy, who, standing on the beach, and having their hands disengaged, securely threw their darts, and repulsed their assailants with great facility. This disadvantage operated so powerfully on the spirits of the Romans, that they seemed unwilling to continue the unequal engagement; but on Cæsar's causing his galleys to advance with their broadsides toward the shore, the Britons began to give ground; and the standard bearer of the tenth legion leaping boldly into the sea, and calling aloud upon his comrades to defend their ensign, the Romans pressed forward, and began the fight with extraordinary fury. The Britons sustained the attack, for some time, with undaunted bravery, and even threw their assailants into great confusion; but they were at length overpowered, and compelled to elude destruction by a precipitate retreat.

B. C. 54. Upon this defeat the Britons thought proper to appease the enemy by timely submissions, and accordingly sent a deputation to sue for peace. Cæsar, having upbraided them with a breach of faith in commencing hostilities after their ambassadors had been kindly received in Gaul, agreed to pardon them on condition they delivered a certain number of hostages. This proposal was accepted; and the British princes, having disbanded their forces, submitted themselves and their dominions to Cæsar.

Meanwhile the eighteen transports containing the Roman cavalry, were driven back to the gallic ports by a tremendous storm, and the fleet which lay in the road was greatly damaged, several vessels being dashed to pieces, and others rendered totally useless by the loss of their anchors, cables, and rigging. The same night, also, the tide rose so high, that the galleys which had been drawn ashore were all filled with water.

These disasters excited a general consternation in the British camp, and inspired the Britons with the hope of destroying an enemy who was evidently in want of cavalry, ships, and provisions. Accordingly the chiefs, who had assembled to perform their agreement with Cæsar, began to steal out of the camp, and to collect their disbanded troops with such diligence, that they were soon enabled to attack the seventh legion, who had been sent out in quest of forage, and to revenge their late defeat by putting many of them to death. However, Cæsar having hastened to the relief of his countrymen with all his

his other troops, the Britons were obliged to retire without completing their design. After this action a heavy fall of rain, which continued for several days, kept the Romans in their camp, and hindered the enemy from attempting any thing against them.

The Britons, however, were not idle; for, having dispatched messengers into all parts of the island to invite their countrymen to force the enemy's camp, they assembled a numerous army, and boldly advanced to the Roman intrenchments; but Cæsar drew up his legions so advantageously, and attacked them so vigorously that they were overthrown with great slaughter, and pursued through several towns and villages, which were all sacrificed to the vengeance of the Romans, till at length the conqueror returned to his camp, and the dispirited Britons consented to purchase a peace, by sending over into Gaul double the number of hostages which had been required by the former treaty.

Cæsar, having obtained this concession, and refitted the greatest part of his ships, deemed it advisable to hasten his departure, lest if he remained till the equinox his fleet might be again exposed to the fury of a storm, and his troops involved in some serious embarrassments. The same night, therefore, he weighed anchor, and passed over to Gaul, whence he wrote to inform the senate of his success; for which a general thanksgiving was appointed for twenty days.

B. C. 53.

Provoked at the neglect of the British states, of whom two only sent him hostages, Cæsar determined to make another descent, the following spring, with a more powerful

ful fleet and army. Accordingly, during his winter residence in Italy, his lieutenants refitted all the old vessels, and built so great a number of transports, that on his return he found six hundred ships and twenty-eight galleys ready to launch. With this formidable fleet he repaired to the Portus Itius, now Witsand, between Calais and Boulogne, and weighing anchor about sun-set, arrived with his whole fleet the next day, by noon, at the same place where he had landed the year before. The Britons, terrified at the sight of so numerous an armament, abandoned the shore, and retired to the hills, whence they were also driven by the Roman cavalry with considerable loss; but, as the day was far spent, Cæsar gave up the pursuit of the fugitives, and returned to fortify his camp.

Next morning Cæsar resolved to march in quest of the enemy, but when he was come within sight of their rear, he received the mortifying intelligence that most of his ships were stranded or dashed to pieces by a violent storm. This disaster consequently checked his progress, and obliged him to return to the sea side. However, he immediately set all the carpenters in the fleet and army to work; drew all his ships, that had escaped the tempest, on shore; and enclosed them within the fortifications of his camp. This extraordinary work being completed, by the diligence of the soldiers, in ten days, Cæsar left a sufficient body of men to defend the intrenchments, and hastened with the residue of his forces to the place where he had last seen the enemy.

Upon his arrival he found their army greatly augmented, under the conduct of Cassibelan, king of the Trinobantes, to whom the Britons had

had unanimously committed the whole management of the war. Whilst the Romans were on their march they were attacked by the British chariots and cavalry, but the assailants were repulsed with great slaughter, and compelled to retire to the woods. An unexpected sally was also made whilst the Romans were busied in fortifying their camp; and three legions were vigorously attacked whilst roving about the country in quest of forage, but the assailants were eventually overthrown, and dispersed with considerable loss.

Encouraged by this success, Cæsar led his troops toward the Thames, in order to cross that river, and carry the war into the territories of Cassibelan; but when he came to the only place where the river could be forded he perceived that the enemy had fortified the opposite bank with sharp stakes, and drawn up a numerous body of forces to oppose his landing. However, the enterprizing general ordered both his cavalry and the legions to advance to the attack. These orders were immediately executed with such alacrity and resolution, that, though the infantry were up to the chin in water, the Britons were compelled to abandon the bank, and Cassibelan, being unwilling to venture an engagement, disbanded the major part of his forces, retaining only four thousand chariots, with which he harassed the foraging parties of the enemy, and prevented them from making excursions.

Meanwhile the Trinobantes sent an embassy to Cæsar, tendering their submissions, and requesting him to appoint Mandubratius their king and governor, instead of Cassibelan, who had forfeited their exteem by some acts of oppression.

pression. These requests were readily complied with; and the example of the Trinobantes was soon followed by several other states, which voluntarily submitted to the Romans. Cæsar also marched with his legions against * Verulamium, Cassibelan's chief city, which he soon reduced, notwithstanding the natural strength of the fortifications, and the brave resistance of the inhabitants.

To repair this heavy loss, and divert the enemy from pursuing his conquests, Cassibelan persuaded four petty princes of Kent, viz. Cingetorix, Carvilius, Segonax, and Taximagulus, to raise a body of forces, and attack the camp where the ships were laid up, but this design was rendered abortive by the vigilance of the Romans, and Cassibelan was compelled to accede to a disadvantageous peace.

Cæsar, having received a number of hostages from the Britons for the performance of their treaty, caused his fleet to be launched with all convenient expedition, lest the winter should prevent his voyage, and, weighing anchor about the second watch of the night, reached the continent by break of day.

From this period the Britons may be said to have enjoyed the matchless blessing of independence till the reign of Claudius; for, though Augustus twice advanced as far as Gaul, in order to extort the tribute which the Britons had promised to his uncle Julius, he was diverted from that resolution. Tiberius never entertained the idea of conquering Britain, but permitted the natives to retain their liberty and laws. And

† This town (now St. Albans) was only a thick wood, surrounded with a ditch, and fortified with a rampart.

Caligula's

Caligula's expedition to the sea side only served to expose him to the derision both of the Britons and Gauls.

In the time of Claudius, however, great part of Britain was subjugated by the Romans, and the remainder was gradually reduced under the succeeding emperors. Of the invasion by Claudius, Dio Cassius has given the following relation: "In the reign of Togodumnus and Caractacus, kings of the Trinobantes, Bericus, being expelled the island for seditious practices, fled with his partisans to Rome, and persuaded the emperor to make a descent upon Britain. The Britons, on the other hand, resenting Claudius's conduct in protecting the fugitives, refused to hold any further commerce with the Romans. Hereupon Plautius, the prætor of Gaul, was sent with a numerous army into Britain, where he landed without opposition; killed Togodumnus in a pitched battle; defeated the forces of Caractacus; and made himself master of several places of importance.

A. D. 44.

Claudius was no sooner apprised of this success than he hastened to join his lieutenant, and having crossed the Thames, defeated the remainder of the British forces. After this victory he advanced to Camalodunum, the royal seat of Cunobeline, which he reduced, together with some of the neighbouring states. To such of the inhabitants as had voluntarily submitted he remitted the confiscation of their estates, for which act of generosity they erected a temple, and paid him divine honours. Plautius was then appointed governor of the island; and the emperor, after remaining in Britain sixteen days, set out on his return to Rome, where he

he received triumphal honours, and the honorary epithet of Britannicus.

Plautius pursued his conquests in his new government with such success, that upon his return to Rome he was honoured with an ovation, and received without the gates by the emperor himself. Vespasian also, having distinguished himself in a very eminent manner in this war, was renumerated with the triumphal ornaments, two sacerdotal dignities, and the consulship.

In the ninth year of Claudius's reign P. Ostorius Scapula, being appointed governor of Britain, attacked the natives who had broken into the Roman conquests; and, having dispersed them with great slaughter, built several forts on the Severn, the Avon, and the Nen; reduced that part of the country which lies south of these rivers to a Roman province; and made Camalodunum a military colony.

The Iceni, alarmed at these proceedings, raised a numerous army, in order to check the progress of their invaders; but Ostorius, after an obstinate conflict, gave them a complete overthrow; and marched his forces against the Brigantes, who had vainly attempted to shake off the yoke.

A. D. 51. Some time after these transactions, Ostorius made war upon the Silures, or inhabitants of South Wales, whom he defeated in a pitched battle. Caractacus, the king of that warlike people, retired after his defeat to Cartismandua, queen of the Brigantes, who, instead of granting him an asylum, treacherously delivered him to the conqueror, by whom he was sent, together with his wife, daughter, and brothers, to the court of Claudius The emperor, however, was so deeply affected

affected with the speech which the magnanimous, but unfortunate, captive made when brought before his tribunal, that he generously gave both him and his relatives their lives and liberty.

Seutonius Paulinus, who was invested with the government of Britain during the reign of Nero, made himself master of the isle of Anglesea; and took an ample revenge on the Britons, who, under the conduct of queen Boadicea, had taken up arms, and massacred an incredible number of Romans. Paulinus was succeeded in the government of the island by Petronius Turpilianus, and he by Frebellius Maximus, but neither of these performed any thing worthy of notice. A. D. 61.

In the reign of Vespasian, Petilius Cerealis was sent into Britain to assume the command of the army. This general, immediately after his arrival, attacked the Brigantes, the most numerous and warlike of all the British nations; defeated them in several battles; and reduced a considerable part of their country. He was succeeded by Julius Frontinus, who carefully maintained the late conquests of his predecessor, and, after some obstinate engagements, effected the subjugation of the Silure.

Frontinus being recalled, Cneius Julius Agricola was sent to command in his room. This famous person landed in Britain about the middle of summer, when the Roman troops supposed the service of the year to be concluded: but as the Ordovices of North Wales had recently massacred a body of cavalry stationed on their frontiers, and, by this exploit, roused the whole province to arms, he resolved to march against them without delay, and ac- A. D. 78.

cordingly commenced so vigorous and unexpected an attack, that most of the insurgents were cut to pieces; the island of Anglesea was retaken; and such of the enemy as escaped the avenging sword earnestly petitioned for peace. After this victory he made several laudable regulations in the army, and redressed many public grievances; by which means the Britons began to be reconciled to the Roman government, and to live in a state of security.

Having employed the best part of the following summer in penetrating into different parts of the country, prevailing on several warlike communities to lay down their arms, and erecting fortresses in their respective territories, Agricola exerted himself to civilize the natives. Accordingly he exhorted and assisted them to build temples, houses, and places of public resort; caused the sons of their chiefs to be carefully instructed in the liberal sciences; and even persuaded many of the nobles to assume the Roman apparel.

In the beginning of the third summer Agricola again took the field, and extended his conquests northward as far as the mouth of the Taus or Tay; whence such terror seized the enemy, that they durst not venture an engagement, so that he had sufficient leisure to secure his acquisitions by the erection of convenient fortresses.

In the first year of Domitian's reign, and the fifth of the British war, he passed the frith in the first ship that landed; subdued in many successful encounters tribes till that time unknown, and placed Roman garrisons in that part of Britain which lies opposite to Ireland.

Next year Agricola pursued his conquests in Caledonia. As it was apprehended that the communities beyond Bodotria, or the frith of Edinburgh, would rise in arms to defend all the ways and passages that led into their respective territories, his first step was to coast and examine, by means of his fleet, the countries lying beyond the frith. The natives, alarmed at this measure, had immediate recourse to arms, and attacked the Roman forts with such extraordinary fury, that the soldiers were seized with consternation, and even advised their general to return to this side of Bodotria, alleging that it would be less disgraceful to retreat of their own accord, than to be driven thither by force. However, the enemy was defeated in the first engagement, and the Romans were so elated with success, that they unanimously demanded to be led into the heart of Caledonia, where, in the course of the next summer, they defeated an army of thirty thousand men with incredible slaughter; thus completing, after many severe conflicts, the subjugation of Britain. A. D. 82.

Domitian was no sooner apprised of this decisive victory than he was stung with envy at the military reputation of Agricola, and determined to recal him. However, lest this proceeding should be ascribed to its real cause, he permitted the object of his jealousy to receive the triumphal ornaments, a statue crowned with laurel, and every honour instead of a real triumph; causing a report to be spread, at the same time, that Agricola's services should be rewarded with the government of Syria. The province of Britain was, accordingly, transferred

to Salustius Lucullus; and Agricola returned to Rome, where he was coolly received by the emperor; and died, soon afterward, in retirement.

A. D. 120. Nothing worthy notice has been recorded concerning the affairs of Britain from this period till the reign of Adrian, when Priscus Licinius was sent over to quell some disturbances among the Caledonians; and the emperor himself, arriving shortly afterward, excited such terror in the breasts of the rebels, that they hastily evacuated all the places they had seized, and retired toward the more northern part of the island. Adrian, deeming it advisable to terminate the war, relinquished all the tract of country lying between the Tyne and the two friths, but caused a wall to be built, extending from the Eden in Cumberland to the Tyne in* Northumberland, in order to restrain the Caledonians from making any irruption into the Roman province. Having thus settled the affairs of the island, and redressed several grievances, Adrian returned to Rome, where he was saluted with the title of "Restorer of Britain."

During the reign of Antoninus Pius, the Brigantes endeavoured to shake off the yoke; and the Caledonians, having demolished a considerable part of Adrian's rampart, began to make fresh incursions into the Roman territories. However, Lollius Urbicus chastised the insolence of the revolted Brigantes; compelled the northern barbarians to retire into their own country; and confined them within narrower bounds than before, by a new wall, extending from the Forth to the Clyde. This wall was passed by the Caledonians in the time of Com-

* A distance of eighty miles.

modus,

modus, and some dreadful devastations were committed in the Roman province, but on the arrival of Ulpius Marcellus the marauders were defeated, and chased into their own territories with prodigious slaughter.

A. D. 207. The emperor Severus divided Britain into two governments, and bestowed the southern part of the island upon Heraclius, and the northern on Virius Lupus. However, the Roman territories were so dreadfully ravaged by the Caledonians, that Severus deemed it advisable to repair thither in person. Accordingly he set out, with his two sons, Caracalla and Geta, at the head of a numerous army, and landing on the island, marched with all possible expedition into the northern countries, which he ravaged with such success, that the Caledonians were compelled to purchase a peace by relinquishing part of their territories, and delivering up all their arms. The victorious emperor then commanded a new wall to be built for the future defence of the Romans, and retired to York, where he sickened and died.

In the commencement of Dioclesian's reign, Carausius, a native of Gaul, usurped the sovereignty of Britain, and enjoyed the imperial title on that island for the space of six years; but was afterward assassinated by Allectus, who had caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, in a pitched battle with Asclepiodotus, one of Constantius's officers. However, at the expiration of three years, Allectus shared the fate of his predecessor; and Britain was reunited to the Roman empire.

The two emperors, Dioclesian and Maximian, having resigned the imperial dignity to Galerius

 and

and Constantius, the latter passed over into Britain, shortly after his accession, and obtained a victory over the turbulent Picts and Caledonians, but sickened and died, soon after, at York.

Constantine, the son and successor of Constantius, altered the division of Britain, which had been formed by Severus into two provinces only, but was now divided into three; viz. Britannia Prima, Britannia Secunda, and Maxima Cæsariensis. The removal of the imperial seat from Rome to Constantinople, which happened during this reign, gave the northern nations an opportunity of making several irruptions into Britain, and emboldened the Picts and Scots to commit many horrid depredations on the Roman territories.

During the short reigns of Julian and Jovian, nothing is mentioned, by historians, concerning the affairs of Britain; but under Valentinian I. the Picts, Scots, Attacots, Saxons, and other northern nations, committed such outrages in the Roman province, that Theodosius, father to the emperor of that name, was sent over to reduce the barbarians. Theodosius accordingly divided his forces into different parties, which, attacking the wandering bands of marauders, put great numbers of them to the sword; recovered all the spoil and prisoners they had taken; and eventually compelled them to abandon the province. After this victory, Theodosius entered London in triumph, and restored that city, with several others, which had suffered greatly by the late invasion, to their former splendor. Several castles were also erected between the friths of Glota and Bodotria, in order to prevent the barbarians from making future incursions; the

the tract of country between Adrian's wall and the two friths, being wholly recovered from the Picts, was formed into a new province, under the name of Valentia; and Theodosius returned to the emperor, with the satisfaction of having restored Britain to its former tranquillity.

In the joint reign of the succeeding emperors, Valentinian II. and Gratian, Maximus usurped the sovereignty in Britain; and, having gained over to his interest the Roman legions in that island, he carried them, with the flower of the British youth into Gaul, where most of them were cut off with their leader. Britain, being thus unfortunately deprived of her chief support, became afterward an easy prey to the Scots and Picts; though, in the time of Theodosius, these warlike nations were kept in awe by Chrysantius, who, being entrusted with the government of the island, acquitted himself in that capacity with equal justice and reputation.

Stilicho, who had been appointed regent of the western empire during the minority of Honorius, appears to have sent a legion into Britain, with orders to defend it against the incursions of its ancient enemies; for Claudian, in enumerating the exploits of Stilicho before his first consulship, asserts, that he succoured Britain from the attacks of the neighbouring nations; that he defended the British coasts against the descent of the Saxons; and that, the Picts being entirely reduced, Britain was delivered from all her fears.

Notwithstanding these generous exertions, the Romans were soon obliged, by the irruptions of the Alans, Vandals, and Suevians, to recal most of their troops from Britain; and, consequently,

sequently, to leave that island exposed to the attacks of its numerous enemies. In this distressing situation, the Britons resolved to appoint an emperor of their own, and accordingly invested with the imperial purple one Marcus, an officer of great reputation, whom, however, they assassinated a few days after his accession. Gratian, his successor, met with a similar fate, after a short reign of four months; and Constantine, who was next raised to the sovereignty merely for the sake of his name, passed over to the continent, with the flower of the British youth, and perished, with most of his followers, in attempting to make himself master of the whole empire.

The Britons, thus left to themselves, and bereft of their best defenders, became an easy prey to the Scots, Picts, and other northern nations, who ravaged the country with fire and sword, and reduced the affrighted natives to the most deplorable condition. Supplications were now made to Rome, and one legion was sent over, which defeated the invaders with great slaughter, and chased them into their ancient limits: but these auxiliaries had no sooner returned to the continent, than the barbarians poured in upon the British territories like an overwhelming torrent, and revenged their late defeat by marking their progress with slaughter, rapine, and desolation. The Britons again made application to Rome, and again obtained the assistance of one legion, which proved effectual for their relief: but the Romans, being fatigued with these repeated expeditions, and reduced to extremities at home, informed the Britons that they must no longer look to Rome for succour; exhorted

horted them to provide for their own security by an exertion of their ancient bravery; and urged the necessity of maintaining their independence against an enemy, whose strength was not, in reality, superior to their own. That they might quit the island with the better grace, they assisted the British artificers in erecting a stone wall parallel to that which had been built by Severus, and raising towers, at convenient distances, on the eastern coast, against the Saxons and other barbarous tribes, who had formerly made several descents on that side. The Roman commander, having thus secured the country, and presented the inhabitants with patterns of several warlike weapons, took a final farewel of Britain, after the greatest part of it had been subject to the empire for the space of four hundred years.

A. D. 448.

The Britons, who had been hitherto accustomed to apply to the emperors for defence, as well as government, were in no condition to profit by the friendly counsel of the Romans. Unaccustomed either to the perils of war, or the weighty cares of civil government, they found themselves utterly incapable of forming any effectual plan for the preservation of their distracted country; and, upon the first appearance of the barbarians, they abandoned their new fortifications, and retired to the interior of the island, whither they were pursued by the ferocious enemy, and reduced to so pitiable a condition, that multitudes perished by famine, and the survivors were compelled to retire to the recesses of the woods, where they procured a scanty subsistence by hunting.

These heavy calamities appear to have been greatly augmented by the cruel dispositions of the

the British chiefs, a perpetual disunion of counsels, and a kind of civil war, which resulted from the necessities of the sufferers; so that the Britons ventured, after some time, to make a third application to Rome, and accordingly sent an embassy to the consul Ætius, who at that time sustained, by his valour and magnanimity, the tottering ruins of the empire. The letter sent on this melancholy occasion was directed thus:—"The groans of the Britons to the consul Ætius;" and the tenor of the epistle was strictly consonant with this superscription. "The barbarians, said they, on the one hand, drive us into the sea, and the sea, on the other, throws us back to the barbarians; we have therefore only the cruel alternative left us, of perishing in the waves, or by the sword of the enemy." However, the affairs of the empire were, at this time, in so distracted a situation, that Ætius had no leisure to attend to the complaint of an ally, whom generosity alone could induce him to assist; and the hopes of the Britons were consequently annihilated.

The ill success of this embassy was no sooner made public, than the despairing Britons unanimously deserted their habitations, abandoned their agricultural employments, and retired to the woods and mountains, where they suffered equally from hunger and the frequent attacks of their merciless enemy. At length, however, the barbarians began to experience the inconvenience of famine as the result of their late depredations, and therefore retreated with their spoils into their own country.

Elated by this unexpected occurrence, the Britons returned to their usual avocations; and the abundant harvests, which rewarded their industry,

try, soon obliterated the recollection of past misfortunes. This abundance introduced luxury, wantonness, and contention; and even the ecclesiastics are said to have abandoned themselves to vice and dissipation: but this general depravity of manners was soon chastised by a dreadful pestilence, and a fresh incursion of the enemy; so that the people, who had but just tasted the sweets of peace, were again reduced to the extremity of distress. In this exigence they attended only to the suggestions of terror, and, in compliance with the advice of Vortigern, who, though contaminated with every vice, was possessed of the supreme authority, they sent a deputation into Germany to invite over the * Saxons for their protection and assistance.

A. D. 450.

The Saxons eagerly embraced a proposal which promised a favourable opportunity of displaying their valour, and gratifying their avidity of plunder. Accordingly, they embarked their troops in three large vessels, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, two brothers, who were reputed to have sprung from the god Woden, and landed at Ebbesfleet, in the isle of Thanet, amidst the acclamations of the Britons, who immediately granted them the isle for their residence; concluded a league of mutual friendship; and engaged to allow them both pay and maintenance as a remuneration of their services.

Shortly after the arrival of these auxiliaries, the Scots and Picts were overthrown in battle,

* One of the most warlike tribes in Germany, peculiarly notorious for their piracies and cruelty, and dreaded, even by the Britons, as the most formidable enemy in the world.

and

and compelled to save themselves from slaughter by a precipitate flight; but, whilst the Britons were triumphing in the valour of their allies, and the success of their own counsels, Hengist conceived the design of appropriating his conquests to the aggrandisement of his own nation. Accordingly, he sent such pleasing accounts to Saxony of the fertility and riches of Britain, and the pusillanimity of its inhabitants, that he was soon reinforced with five thousand of his countrymen, who came over in seventeen vessels. The Britons now began to entertain apprehensions of their new allies, whose numbers were continually increasing, but thought of no other remedies than connivance and passive submission. This expedient, however, proved of no avail; for the Saxons, taking occasion to quarrel on pretence of not receiving an adequate reward for their services, formed an alliance with the Scots and Picts, and immediately proceeded to ravage the country.

Exasperated by the cruelties which followed this breach of faith, the Britons flew to arms; and, having placed themselves under the command of Vortimer, the son of Vortigern, fought several battles with extraordinary resolution; in one of which Horsa, the Saxon general, was slain. However, Hengist reinforced his army with fresh supplies from Germany, and carried devastation into the most remote corners of Britain; so that neither age, sex, nor condition, were exempt from his atrocious cruelties. The public and private edifices of the Britons were reduced to ashes; the priests were inhumanly murdered even during the celebration of their worship; and both nobles and plebeians were

cut

cut off in one horrid massacre. At this dreadful juncture some of the persecuted inhabitants eluded destruction by tendering their services to the insulting foe; and others, fleeing from their ensanguined country, took refuge in the province of Armorica, where they were hospitably received by a people of the same language and manners, and formed a new settlement, which they distinguished by the name of Britany.

On the demise of Vortimer, which happened about six years after his accession, Ambrosius was invested with the supreme command, and endeavoured to unite his countrymen in their resistance against the barbarous Saxons. The contests which resulted from his advice increased the animosity between the two nations, and roused the military spirit of the Britons, which had long continued dormant: but Hengist still maintained his ground with undaunted bravery; and, in order to divide the attention of the natives, he called over a new tribe of Saxons, under the conduct of his brother Octa, and settled them in Northumberland; whilst he fixed his own royal seat at Canterbury, and laid the foundation of the kingdom of Kent, which comprehended the county of that name, Middlesex, Essex, and part of Surry. This warlike chieftain died about the year 467, leaving his newly-acquired kingdom to his posterity.

The extraordinary success of Hengist induced many of the other northern Germans to visit Britain; and they accordingly flocked over in prodigious multitudes, and under different leaders, to the invasion of the island. These conquerors were chiefly composed of three tribes;

viz. Saxons, Jutes, and Angles, who all bore the common appellation of Saxons or Angles, and who were naturally excited by motives of interest to unite their forces against the ancient inhabitants. The resistance of the Britons now became extremely faint, and their calamities admitting of few intervals, they were at length compelled to abandon their native territories, and seek an asylum from persecution among the remote valleys or inaccessible mountains of Wales and Cornwal.

In the year 477 a Saxon chief, named Ella, brought over an army from Germany, and, landing on the southern coast, proceeded to take possession of the adjacent territory. The Britons, exasperated at this fresh invasion, fell upon the strangers with great fury, and thereby retarded the progress of their conquests. However, Ella, having obtained a powerful reinforcement from his countrymen, again took the field, and, after an obstinate conflict, reduced the city of Andredchester; by which victory he effectually secured his former conquests, and, assuming the title of "King of South-Saxony," extended his dominions over the whole county of Sussex, and a considerable part of Surry.

Another barbarous tribe, who, from the situation of their settlement, were called West-Saxons, landed in Britain, under the command of Cerdic and of his son Kenric. These invader[illegible]ceived so warm a reception from the Britons, that they were not only retarded in their progress, but even compelled to apply for succour to their countrymen in Kent and Sussex, as well as in Germany; but, on their receiving some fresh supplies, they gave battle to the Britons, and defeated

defeated them with great slaughter. Cerdic, indeed, appears to have sustained some heavy losses by the heroic valour of Arthur, king of the Silures; but these were not sufficient to wrest from him the conquests he had already made. He founded the kingdom of Wessex or West Saxony, over the counties of Dorset, Hants, Wilts, Berks, and the Isle of Wight, and left this important acquisition to his descendants.

Whilst the Saxons were thus aggrandising themselves in the south, their countrymen were not less active in other quarters; for a numerous tribe of adventurers having landed on the eastern coast, under several leaders, attacked the natives with irresistible fury, and established three new kingdoms. Uffa, having reduced the counties of Cambridge, Suffolk, and Norfolk, assumed the title of king of the East Angles; Erkewin, having dismembered Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire, from the kingdom of Kent, caused himself to be proclaimed king of East-Saxony; and Crida erected the middle counties into a new kingdom, which he distinguished with the name of Mercia.

The Saxons, shortly after the landing of Hengist, had formed a settlement in Northumberland; but, as they made only a trifling progress in subduing the inhabitants, and their affairs were less flourishing than those of their countrymen in other parts, none of their chiefs assumed the regal title till the year 547, when Ida, a Saxon prince of great valour, brought over a powerful reinforcement from Germany; completed the reduction of Northumberland, the bishopric of Durham, and some of the south-east counties of Scotland; and assumed the

crown, under the title of king of Bernicia. About the same time another Saxon prince, named Ella, having reduced Lancashire and a considerable part of Yorkshire, received the appellation of king of Deiri. But these kingdoms were afterward united, by the marriage of Ethilfrid, grandson of Ida, with Acca, the daughter of Ella, and became one of the most powerful of the Saxon kingdoms under the name of Northumberland.

Thus was established, after an obstinate contest of near one hundred and fifty years, the heptarchy, or seven Saxon kingdoms in Britain; and the whole southern part of the island, except Wales and Cornwal, had totally changed its inhabitants, language, customs, and political institutions.

NORTHERN NATIONS:

COMPREHENDING THE HUNNS, GOTHS, VANDALS, SUEVES, FRANKS, BURGUNDIANS, ALEMANS, GEPIDÆ, HERULI, MARCOMANS, QUADIANS, SARMATIANS, DACIANS, AND BULGARIANS.

SECTION I.

THE HUNNS.

THE posterity of the Albanians, having migrated from their native country, established themselves in that part of Asiatic Sarmatia which bordered on the Palus Mæotis and the Tanais, the ancient boundary between Europe and Asia. They appear to have been divided into several tribes, but were all comprised under the general name of * Ugri, which was afterward changed into that of Hunni.

The Sarmatian or Scythian Hunns are described, by the best historians, as a hardy, warlike, and ferocious people, who subsisted entirely on roots or raw meat; lived, constantly exposed to the air, in the woods, or among the excavations of the mountains; were accustomed even to eat and sleep on horseback; and professed the utmost contempt for raiment, houses, and other conveniencies of life. They were equally destitute of religious and civil institutions, and

* The word *Ugre*, whence Ugri is derived, signifies, in the Sclavonic language, aquatic, or living in the water—a name well adapted to a nation residing in the marshy places which bordered on the Palus Mæotis and the Tanais.

abandoned themselves without restraint to the gratification of their unruly passions. Hence we find them making frequent incursions into the Roman empire in defiance of the most solemn oaths, and even occasionally turning their arms against their own countrymen for a pecuniary reward. They are said to have mangled the cheeks of their male infants, in order to strike terror into the enemy by their distorted countenances; and in war they usually rushed toward the foe with hideous shouts; but, if their first attack were vigorously resisted, their fury soon abated, and they fled in the utmost confusion.

Their first excursion in quest of new settlements appears to have been made about the year of the Christian æra 376, when they passed the Palus Mæotis; made a dreadful slaughter among the Alans, Ostrogoths, and Visigoths; and took possesion of that vast tract of country which extends from the Tanais to the Danube.

About the year 383 the Nephthalite or White Hunns broke into the Roman territories; overran Mesopotamia; and even laid siege to the city of Edessa; but they were bravely repulsed by the garrison, and compelled, after some time, to abandon their daring enterprize.

This tribe inhabited a rich tract of country, at a considerable distance from the Sarmatian Hunns, with whom they had no affinity nor intercourse. They lived according to their own laws; dealt equitably with each other; and seldom made inroads, unless provoked, into the territories of their neighbours.

The Sarmatian Hunns, emboldened by their success against the Alans, Goths, and other barbarous nations, crossed the Danube in 391, and com-

committed the most dreadful outrages in Thrace and Mæsia; Stilicho overthrew them in a pitched battle, and surrounded them so completely in a narrow valley, that they must either have surrendered at discretion or perished with hunger, had not Claudian generously offered to conclude a treaty of peace.

Four years after this event, the Hunns made an unexpected irruption into the eastern provinces, and penetrated even to the walls of Antioch; marking their progress with such enormous cruelties and depredations, that St. Jerome says—"All the East trembled at the approach of an enemy, who, equally destitute of religion and humanity, roved without controul where-ever they pleased, massaçreing those who had scarce begun to live, and who smiled, unconscious of danger, at the very weapons that were lifted to destroy them." Indeed, the barbarians appear to have spared neither age, sex, nor condition, in this expedition; but to have filled all places with slaughter and desolation.

From this period they seem to have remained quiet till the year 404, when, crossing the Danube in prodigious multitudes, they ravaged the province of Thrace, penetrated into East-Illyricum, and returned home loaded with plunder.

During the minority of Theodosius II. Uldin, king of the Hunns, entered Thrace, at the head of a formidable army; but the gallant resistance of the Romans, and the defection of his own officers, compelled him to repass the Danube with the utmost precipitation. On this occasion the Scyri, a northern nation in alliance with Uldin, received an overthrow, by which they were almost utterly extirpated.

On

On the demise of Honorius, in 423, sixty thousand Hunns were led by Ætius to the assistance of John, who had assumed the imperial purple; and an obstinate battle was fought with the troops of Assar; but Ætius, being informed of the usurper's death, thought proper to submit to Theodosius, and accordingly persuaded the barbarians to return home. Toward the close of the same year Thrace was over-run and pillaged by one of the northern tribes under the command of Rougas; but this marauder being killed by lightning, and many of his men swept off by a pestilence, the survivors retreated with precipitation to their own country.

In the year 435 a numerous body of Hunns joined Ætius against the Burgundians, of whom they slaughtered twenty thousand. However, they soon experienced a reverse of fortune in this expedition; for the Burgundians, having watched a favorable opportunity, fell upon them with resistless fury, cut ten thousand of their men to pieces, and obliged the rest to save themselves by flight.

Attila, king of the Hunns, having, with the assistance of his brother Bleda, subjugated most of the northern nations, conceived the daring design of seizing the Roman empire. Accordingly, having passed the Danube at the head of a powerful army, he made himself master of several cities and fortresses; ravaged the country wherever he passed with fire and sword; and overwhelmed the Romans with such consternation, that Theodosius was reduced to the necessity of concluding a peace upon very disadvantageous terms.

About the year 451 Attila entered Gaul at the

the head of a numerous army, declaring that he had no design inimical to the welfare of the Romans, but that he only wished to traverse Gaul, and pass the Loire at Orleans, in order to fall upon the Visigoths in Guienne and Languedoc. Hereupon the credulous Romans laid aside their apprehensions, and several cities opened their gates; but the artful invader had no sooner penetrated into the country than he threw off the mask, and committed the most horrid depredations. At Mentz, in particular, he permitted the most infamous cruelties to be exercised on the inhabitants; massacred the priests even before their altars; and reduced the greatest part of the city to ashes. He next took possession of Orleans; but was driven thence with great slaughter, and, after a bloody engagement in the plains of Chalons, he retired to the banks of the Rhine. As the other principal exploits of this warlike barbarian have been already noticed in the history of * Rome, it is only requisite to add, that his reign was at length terminated by the breaking of a blood vessel, and his funeral obsequies were performed with great solemnity.

Ellac, the son and successor of Attila, is described as a person of great bravery and resolution, well versed in the arts of war, and, consequently, capable of retaining his father's numerous conquests; but, whilst his brothers were clamouring for a division of the sovereignty, the Gepidæ broke out into an open revolt, and marched a body of forces to the banks of the Netad, in Pannonia, where upwards of thirty thousand Hunns were put to the sword, and

* Vide vol. vii, page 88, and sequel.

Ellac

Ellac himself was cut off in the very commencement of his reign.

The surviving Hunns were so disheartened by this defeat, and the subsequent revolt of several other nations, that they immediately retired toward the Euxine sea and the mouths of the Danube, leaving the Gepidæ in possession of all ancient Dacia. About eight years after this occurrence Dinzio, one of Attila's sons, made an irruption into the territories of the Goths, and invested the city of Basiana, which was situated between the Save and the Draw; but his design was soon frustrated, and himself compelled to retreat with considerable loss.

In the year of the Christian æra 466, a numerous army of Hunns passed the Danube, in the depth of winter, and committed some dreadful ravages in the province of Dacia; but Anthemius, marching against them with a select body of troops, they were defeated in a pitched battle, and compelled to abandon their enterprize. Dengizic, one of Atilla's sons, attempted to retrieve this misfortune by assembling a greater body of forces; but his designs were rendered abortive by the vigilance of Arnagastus, who guarded the banks of the Danube, and his head was sent by the victor to Constantinople, where it was carried through the streets on the point of a spear.

Overwhelmed with confusion by these repeated overthrows, and dispirited by the loss of their most valiant chiefs, the Hunns continued quiet for the space of sixty years; but, on the accession of Justinian, two of their kings, Styrax and Glones, penetrated the Roman territories,

at

at the head of two formidable armies. At this juncture, however, Boarox, queen of the Sabirite Hunns, led an army of one hundred thousand men to the assistance of the emperor; gave the invaders a signal overthrow; and sent Styrax himself in chains to Constantinople.

In the thirteenth year of Justinian's reign, the Cuturgurian Hunns, crossing the Danube in prodigious multitudes, ravaged the greatest part of Thrace, Greece, Illyricum, and all the provinces from the Ionian sea to the very suburbs of Constantinople; and, having passed the Hellespont, committed many enormous acts of cruelty in Asia, and returned home with an immense booty, and one hundred and twenty thousand captives. To prevent a repetition of these expeditions, Justinian allowed the Cuturgurians some lands in the province of Thrace, and agreed to pay them an annual pension, upon condition that they should serve, when required, under the Roman banners; but as this scheme proved inadequate to the preservation of the empire, a quarrel was artfully fomented between the Cuturgurian and Uturgurian Hunns, which divided the attention of the former, and finally terminated in the destruction of both.

Venantius Fortunatus asserts, that, about the year 560, a numerous body of Hunns took their route through Germany, with a design to cross the Rhine, and form a settlement in Gaul: but Sigebert, king of the Franks, arrested their progress on the banks of the Elbe, and gained a complete victory, many thousands of the barbarians being killed, and the residue compelled to retire into Pannonia.

From this period no farther notice is taken of the

the Hunns till the reign of Charles the Great, when they were possessed of Dacia, Mœsia, and both the Pannonias. Two of their princes, Caganus and Jugunus, formed an amicable alliance with Charles in the year 776. But their subsequent treachery, in sending succours to Tassilo, duke of Bavaria, and a dispute which arose respecting their boundaries, gave such umbrage to their illustrious ally, that he not only renounced their friendship, but ravaged their country with fire and sword, for the space of eight years, till he had almost extirpated their name and nation. Some authors, indeed, are of opinion that the whole race was entirely destroyed; and that the country was afterward peopled by the surrounding nations, to whom the present Hungarians owe their origin. However, it is certain that the Hunns were finally subdued, by Charles the Great, about the year 794, and that Henry, duke of Friuli, took their royal palace, and stripped it of immense treasures—a considerable part of which was sent, by the emperor's order, to Rome.

SECT. II.

GOTHS.

THESE warlike people are said to have come, originally, from Scandinavia; but the time when they first settled in that district is very uncertain. The Danes, however, readily acknowledge that their country was first peopled by the Goths of Scandinavia; that to them they owe their origin; and that Dan, king of the

Goths,

Goths, was the founder of their kingdom. And the peopling of the Chersonesus, of the islands in the Baltic sea, and the adjacent places on the continent, are called, by northern writers, the first migration of the Goths or Getes.

Their second migration happened several ages after, under the conduct of Berig, who seized on the country of the Ulmerugians, now Pomerania, and even compelled the neighbouring Vandals to share their possessions with his followers. From Pomerania a numerous colony was sent into Scythia; and, in process of time, they returned into Germany, under the command of Woden, a hero of great celebrity.

With respect to the customs, manners, and character of the Goths, they appear to have been famed, even in the earliest ages, for their hospitality and kindness to strangers. They encouraged the study of philosophy above all other barbarous nations: and Horace has bestowed some warm encomiums on the virtue of their women. Polygamy, however, was universally countenanced among them; and their martial disposition induced them to commit many unwarrantable depredations on the territories of their neighbours. Apollinaris Sidonius has described them as wearing high shoes, made of untanned hides, green cassocks, with a red border, and garments of various colours, scarcely reaching to the knee; their principal weapons consisted of bearded lances, and missile hatchets. Their government was monarchical; and their religion similar to that of the other northern nations whose histories have been already related.

The Romans appear to have dreaded the power of this nation at a very early period; for,

even in the reign of Alexander, which began in 222, considerable sums were annually paid out of the treasury to prevent them from making irruptions into the empire. And, on the demise of Maximin, they broke into the province of Mœsia; destroyed the city of Istria on the southern mouth of the Danube; and retired, unmolested, to their own country.

About the year of the Christian æra 245, Ostrogotha led a numerous body of forces into Mœsia, and compelled the inhabitants to compound with him, in order to avoid the calamities that were usually attendant on his progress. And Cniva, the successor of Ostrogotha, having made himself master of Philippolis on the Hebrus, ravaged the greatest part of Thrace and Macedon; defeated the Romans in a pitched battle; slew the emperor Decius and his son; and obtained the promise of an annual pension, on condition of remaining, for the future, within his own boundaries.

Seventeen years after this event the Goths made an unexpected irruption into Thrace; reduced the province of Macedon; and attempted to penetrate into Achaia: but Macrianus, having attacked them by surprise, gave them a signal overthrow; and compelled them to elude a general slaughter by flight. About the same time another tribe of this nation crossed the Hellespont; plundered the temple of Diana at Ephesus; burnt the poor remains of ancient Troy; and returned home loaded with plunder.

On the accession of the emperor Claudius, the Goths, with several other barbarous nations, resolved to invade the empire both by sea and land. Accordingly they embarked with a numerous body

body of forces in two thousand vessels, and, landing in the Lesser Scythia, laid siege, at the same time, to the city of Tomi in that province, and to Marcianopolis in Mœsia: but, finding a vigorous resistance at both places, they re-embarked on the Euxine sea, and sailed to the straits of the Bosphorus, where their fleet suffered materially from the rapidity of the current and stress of weather; and their troops were bravely repulsed by the inhabitants of Byzantium. Hereupon they entered the Ægean sea, in order to refit their vessels near Mount Athos, in Macedon; and afterward laid siege to the cities of Cassandria and Thessalonica. But, whilst they were busied in ravaging the country, and forming new schemes for the aggrandisement of their own military fame, a pestilential distemper swept off a prodigious number of their mariners, and most of their land forces were overthrown by the emperor Claudius, who, on this occasion, assumed the surname of Gothicus.

Notwithstanding these disasters, the Goths made an irruption into Pannonia, about the year 270, and committed many alarming outrages: but Aurelian, who had just assumed the purple, marched against them at the head of a powerful army; and, by that measure, induced them to sue for peace. However, they soon renewed their incursions, and exasperated Aurelian so highly, that he not only drove them beyond the boundaries of Thrace, but even passed the Danube, and defeated Cannaband, a Gothic prince, with dreadful slaughter.

The Goths appear to have made a settlement, about the year 274, in Dacia and the Danube; and to have, afterwards, invaded the provinces

 of

of Pontus, Cappadocia, Galatia, and Bithynia: but Tacitus prevailed on many of them, by a pecuniary compliment, to abandon these territories; and the rest were driven entirely out of the empire. In 278, the Goths concluded a treaty of peace with the emperor Probus; and, in 289, they suffered so complete an overthrow by Dioclesian, that one of their tribes was entirely cut off, and the province of Dacia beyond the Danube re-annexed to the Roman empire. For this victory Dioclesian assumed the name of Sarmaticus, as appears from the inscriptions on several antique coins.

In the fifteenth year of Constantine's reign, the Goths, who had, for some time, been engaged in a sanguinary war with the Vandals and Burgundians, made a fresh irruption into the Roman territories: but Constantine, having marched against them with all possible expedition, defeated them in several engagements; took an incredible number of captives, and reduced them to such extremities, that they not only sued for a cessation of hostilities, but also consented to assist the victor, with a numerous body of troops, against Licinius.

Upon the accession of Valens to the imperial dignity, this turbulent race broke into the boundaries of Thrace, and committed their usual depredations; but, on the receipt of a handsome gratification from the emperor, they returned peaceably to their own country. However, they soon repeated their outrages; and, by espousing the cause of the usurper Procopius, involved themselves in a dangerous war with Valens, who, having passed the Danube with a select body of forces, ravaged the greatest part of their coun-

try

try with fire and sword; cut off a prodigious number of their men in different encounters; and, at length, defeated their king, Athanaric, at the head of his army. Hereupon the barbarians sued for peace; and Valens returned, with his victorious troops, to Constantinople.

Shortly after this event the Goths, being driven from their ancient territories by the more savage Hunns, fled in such prodigious numbers, to take shelter among the Romans, that Valens admitted two hundred thousand of them into Thrace, upon their promising to live peaceably in that province, and to serve, when required, in the Roman army; but the officers who were appointed to supply them with provisions exercised so unjust a severity, that the barbarians immediately rose in arms, and commenced a sanguinary war with their oppressors, which continued with various success till Theodosius I. granted them certain lands in Thrace and Mœsia; indulged them with an exemption from all taxes; and kindly undertook to redress all their grievances. During this reign the unfortunate Athanaric took refuge in the imperial palace at Constantinople, and was treated with unparalleled generosity by the emperor; but he was so violently afflicted with the loss of his dominions, that he died about a fortnight after his arrival.

About the year 395, a numerous army of Goths, being stirred up by Rufinus, penetrated into the provinces of Pannonia, Macedon, and Thessaly, and committed the most cruel depredations upon the inhabitants. They afterward passed the straits of Thermopylæ without opposition, and proceeded, under the conduct of their celebrated chief Alaric, to the very gates of

of Constantinople. Upon the first report of these daring outrages, Stilicho hastened from Gaul to repel the Barbarians; but his intentions were all frustrated; for Arcadius, having concluded a peace with the enemy, appointed Alaric to the command of the troops in East Illyricum; and Stilicho, by the malice of his treacherous accusers, was stripped of all his honours, declared a public enemy, and reduced to poverty.

The Goths remained tolerably peaceable for about three years; but at the expiration of that time they resolved to enrich themselves with the spoils of the empire, and accordingly conferred the regal title on Alaric, who, notwithstanding his employment under Arcadius, readily took the field against the Romans, and, after ravaging the fairest parts of Italy, made himself master even of Rome itself, which he abandoned to the plunder of his rapacious followers. From Rome the victorious Barbarian passed through the provinces of Campania, Lucania, Samnium, and Apulia, with a design to pass over to Sicily, and thence into Africa, but on his arrival at Rhegium he was seized with a fit of illness, which terminated both his conquests and life in the space of a few days.

Ataulphus, the successor of Alaric, invaded Gaul in the commencement of his reign, and afterwards married Placidia, the sister of Honorius, who had been taken captive in the late expedition against Rome. After the solemnization of his nuptials with this princess, Ataulphus seemed extremely desirous of concluding a peace with Honorius, and of turning his arms against the Vandals, Franks, and other barbarous nations,

nations, who had broken into Gaul; but these designs were frustrated by the intrigues of Constantius; and the king of the Goths, being compelled to retire into Spain, was, soon afterward, taken off by assassination. His successor, Sigeric, shared a similar fate about six days after his election to the sovereignty.

Vallia, the next king of the Goths, having concluded a treaty of peace with the Romans, waged war with the Alans and Silingians in Spain, and, after defeating them in several battles, obliged them to flee for protection into Galicia. For this important service, Vallia was allowed to form a settlement in Aquitania, where he died after a reign of three years.

Theodoric had no sooner obtained the sovereignty than he broke the alliance which his predecessor had made with the Romans, and made himself master of some important places in Gaul; but at the approach of Ætius he abandoned the enterprize, and was, soon after, obliged to sue for a renewal of the peace which himself had so lately violated. However, about ten years after this transaction, Theodoric broke again with the Romans, and, having reduced several towns, at length laid siege to Narbonne; but his designs were all frustrated by the vigilance of the enemy, and, after some time, the warlike Goth renewed his alliance with the Romans, in whose defence he afterward fought with extraordinary bravery against the Hunns, and lost his life at the famous battle of Chalons.

Thorismond, the successor of Theodoric, evinced the utmost impatience to revenge his father's death, and accordingly, having engaged Attila, king of the Hunns, with a formidable

army,

army, drove that invader from Gaul with equal loss and ignominy. However, the conduct of Thorismond gave such umbrage to his subjects that he was soon taken off by assassination.

Theodoric II. has been described, by Sidonius, as a prince of superior abilities and great accomplishments, but a mere hypocrite with respect to religion. In the commencement of his reign he formed an alliance with the Romans, and assisted them, with a chosen body of troops, against the Bagaudæ. He, afterward, caused Avitus to be proclaimed emperor at Thoulouse; recovered several provinces from the turbulent Suevians; and reduced several important places in Lusitania. Emboldened by these successes, he renounced the emperor's friendship, and soon made himself master of the greatest part of Spain, together with some places in Gaul, which had hitherto belonged to the Romans; but his ambitious projects were at length terminated by his brother Euric, who caused him to be murdered in the thirteenth year of his reign.

Euric having, by this nefarious action, established himself in the sovereignty, resolved to carry on the war with vigor. Accordingly he committed great depredations in Lusitania; made himself master of Pampelona, Saragosa, Coimbra, and Tarraco; and eventually chased the Romans from Spain, after they had held that country in subjection for the space of seven hundred years. He afterward led his victorious forces into Gaul, and compelled the Romans to purchase a shameful peace by delivering up the province of Auvergne. The other places in Gaul which had submitted to Odoacer were afterward yielded to Euric, whose dominions,

by this addition, extended from the Loire to the Alps; but whilst this ambitious prince was projecting new conquests, his career was suddenly stopped by death, in the nineteenth year of his reign. He had ascended the throne by an act of fratricide, and governed his subjects with unrelenting severity. War and bloodshed were his chief objects of delight; and the success which usually attended his campaigns rendered him extremely formidable to all the neighbouring nations. He was, however, a man of uncommon penetration, and is said to have been the first who gave the Goths a code of written laws.

He left one son, named Alaric, who succeeded him, and a daughter, who was married to a barbarian prince named Sigismer. From the description which Sidonius has given of that prince, Valesius supposes him to have been a Frank by birth, and that Euric gave him his daughter in marriage with a view of conciliating the friendship of the Franks, who began, about this period, to be very powerful in Gaul; but, if this were the case, Eurics's hopes were extremely ill grounded, for the Franks unanimously rose in arms against his descendants, and put a final period to their dominion in Gaul.

Upon this overthrow the Goths retired into Spain, and fixed their royal seat at Toledo, as will appear in the modern department of our history.

SECT. III.

VANDALS.

THE Vandals, according to the most credible historians, were originally a Gothic nation, who came out of Scandinavia, with the other Goths, under the command of king Eric, and settled in the countries now distinguished by the names of Mecklenburg and Brandenburg. Several ages after this migration another colony settled in Pomerania, under the conduct of a chieftain called Berig; and, in process of time, they extended themselves into Dalmatia, Illyricum, and Dacia.

The government of the Vandals was, in all probability, monarchical, long before their nation was known to the Romans; but Godegesilus, who led them into Gaul, about the year 406, is the first of their kings noticed in ancient history. This prince, having sustained a bloody conflict with the Franks, and marched at the head of a numerous army into Gaul, committed many depredations on that country; and, with the assistance of some other barbarous nations, overran all the neighbouring provinces. However, his progress was suddenly arrested by the emperor Constantine, who defeated him in several pitched battles, and compelled him to sue for peace.

To remunerate themselves for the losses they had sustained in the Gaulish expedition, the Vandals crossed the Pyrenees, and entered Spain, where they soon reduced several important-

ant cities and fortresses; defeated the Roman troops who had been sent to quell the rebellion of Geronicus; and eventually divided all the Spanish provinces between themselves and their auxiliaries.

About the year 422 Honorius resolved to attempt the recovery of Spain from these Barbarians, who had recently sustained some heavy losses from Vallia, king of the Goths; but, Castinus having imprudently risked a general engagement, twenty thousand of the Roman troops were cut to pieces, and the survivors compelled to take refuge in the city of Tarraco. The Vandals having by this victory firmly established themselves in Andalusia, committed many depredations in the adjacent provinces, extended their conquests even to the Balearic islands, and returned into Spain with an immense booty, and an incredible number of captives.

Shortly after this expedition the Suevians and Vandals quarrelling, Gonderic, king of the Vandals, gained some signal advantages over the king of the Suevians, whom he compelled to retire to the mountains of Biscay, and there blocked him up, together with all his forces; but Gonderic, being suddenly attacked by Asterius and Maurocelus, was soon obliged to return to Andalusia, where he sickened and died.

Genseric, brother of the deceased prince, renounced the Catholic faith shortly after his accession, and embraced the heretical tenets of Arius. He was, however, remarkably courageous, and well skilled in the art of war. He gained some signal victories over the Suevians and Romans, and struck such terror into the latter

latter by the reduction of Carthage and a considerable part of Sicily, that Valentinian was obliged to conclude a peace on the dishonourable condition of surrendering all the countries which the Barbarians had seized in Africa.

Some years after this event, Eudoxia, the relict of Valentinian III. dispatched a messenger to Genseric, entreating him to revenge the death of his late ally, and rescue her from a tyrant who had forced her to his detested couch, after embruing his hands in the blood of her husband. Genseric readily embraced the opportunity of invading so wealthy a country as Italy, and accordingly steered his course immediately to Rome, which he took, and plundered in the manner we have already described in a former volume.

In the beginning of the reign of Majorianus the Vandals made a descent on the coast of Campania; but the Romans attacked them with such extraordinary fury, while they were ravaging the country, that great numbers of them were cut to pieces, and the rest compelled to take refuge on board their fleet. Majorianus, anxious to improve this advantage, immediately assembled a fleet of three hundred vessels; engaged a great number of barbarians to serve in his army, and flattered himself with driving the Vandals entirely out of Africa; but, after four years had been spent in preparations, and a prodigious sum lavished on this expedition, a squadron of Genseric's best ships surprised the Roman vessels as they lay at anchor in the bay of Alicant, and made such havoc among them, that all the emperor's measures were disconcerted, and Genseric obtained an honourable peace.

On the demise of Majorianus, the Vandals renewed their depredations on the coasts of Italy and Sicily, and extended their ravages to Peloponnesus and the Greek islands. Hereupon Leo, emperor of the East, made such great preparations for chastising the invaders, by carrying the war into Africa, that Constantine Manasses observes, " nothing seemed capable of resisting so powerful an armament;" and Genseric himself is said to have entertained some thoughts of eluding the impending danger by evacuating Africa; but Basiliscus, who had been entrusted with the command of all the Roman troops, imprudently consented to a truce at the very moment in which he might have made himself master of Carthage, and effected the entire subjugation of the country. Hereupon the Vandals treacherously set fire to some empty vessels, which, being driven forward, threw the enemy's fleet into the utmost confusion, and enabled Genseric to obtain a decisive victory. Basiliscus returned, with the few ships that escaped, first to Sicily, and afterward to Constantinople, where he took refuge in the church of St. Sophia; but, though his ill success was universally attributed to treachery, his life was spared, and he was permitted to retire to Heraclea, in Thrace. Such was the unhappy issue of an expedition which drained both the eastern and western empires of their wealth, and was attended with the loss of fifty thousand valiant men.

Elated by his recent success, and thirsting after fresh acquisitions, Genseric put to sea, without loss of time, and reduced Sardinia, Sicily, and all the islands between Italy and Africa, while the Romans gazed in silent agony on his

proceedings, and actually trembled at his name. However, in the year of the Christian æra, 475, Genseric concluded a peace with the emperor Zeno, on condition of his renouncing all claim to the provinces of Africa. Next year the royal Vandal ceded the island of Sicily to Odoacer, and died shortly after the conclusion of peace with that barbarian.

Nothing farther occurs in history concerning this nation till the time of Justinian; who, espousing the cause of Hilderic against the usurper Gilimer, gained a complete victory over the Vandals, and re-united the provinces of Africa to the empire.

SECT. IV.

SUEVES.

THOUGH nothing satisfactory has been alleged by historians concerning the *origin* of the Sueves, they were, in Cæsar's time, numbered among the most warlike nations of Germany; and agreed in customs and manners with other inhabitants of that extensive country.

Their first king noticed in ancient history was Marobodes, who, during the reign of Tiberius, was deposed by his own subjects, and compelled to take refuge in the Roman dominions. Catualdes, who had been elected to the sovereignty in his place, was soon afterward involved in similar troubles; and such numbers of Sueves chose to follow their unfortunate master, that Tiberius, from motives of state policy, allotted them certain lands beyond the Danube.

In

In the first year of Claudius's reign, the Sueves, in conjunction with some other German nations, made an irruption into Italy, and advanced as far as the lake Benacus, in the neighbourhood of Verona; but they were entirely overthrown by the emperor's troops, and obliged to retire with a dreadful loss. In the twenty-first year of the same reign they broke into the province of Rhætia; but, on their receiving intelligence of Claudius's approach, they retired with the utmost precipitation to their own country.

About the year 406, they assisted the Vandals and Alans against Gaul and Spain, and divided the Spanish provinces by lot, as we have already noticed in the preceding section. However, they received a signal overthrow from Vallia, king of the Goths; and, in the year 430, a numerous body of their troops was defeated, by Aetius, in attempting to cross the Rhine.

Emeric, king of the Sueves, seems to have waged an obstinate war with the inhabitants of Galicia, which was carried on with various success till the year 437, when Censorius effected an accommodation between the hostile nations; and Emeric resigned the crown to his son Rechila, after he had held the reins of government twenty-eight years.

Rechila appears to have inherited his father's martial disposition; for the very commencement of his reign was signalized with an important victory gained in Bætica; and his arms were crowned with success in several expeditions against the neighbouring nations.

On the death of Rechila, his son Rechiarius assumed the royal ensigns at Merida, notwithstanding the opposition of some of his country-

 men.

men. He espoused the daughter of Theodoric, king of the Goths; and, immediately after his marriage, made an incursion into the territories of the Gascons, which he ravaged to a great extent. He chearfully consented to an alliance with the Romans, and strictly abstained from injuring their territories till the death of Valentinian, when he broke into the province of Carthagena, and committed many ravages in the country: but his army was utterly defeated, and himself put to death, by Theodoric, king of the Goths.

Such of the Sueves as disdained to submit to the victorious Theodoric, retired, after this defeat, to a remote corner of Galicia, where they invested one Maldra with the regal title. The Goths being soon afterward obliged to return into Gaul, Maldra made an unexpected irruption into Lusitania; made himself master of the city of Lisbon; and ordered his troops to ravage that part of Galicia which bordered on the Douro, notwithstanding he had recently concluded a treaty of peace with the inhabitants. About the year 459, he murdered his own brother, and surprised the strong castle of Portucal: but his ambitious projects were soon cut short by assassination.

Upon the demise of this treacherous prince, his dominions were divided between his sons, Rhemismund and Frumarius, under whom the Sueves of Lugo in Galicia treacherously massacred a great number of Romans who resided in their city; took Idatius, bishop of Aquæ Flaviæ, prisoner, and laid waste a considerable part of Spain.

On the decease of Frumarius, Remismund became

came sole king of the Sueves, and negociated a peace with Theodoric: but, on the accession of Euric to the Gothic kingdom, he broke into the province of Lusitania, and gave up Coimbra to be plundered by his soldiers. However, as he was well apprised of the superior power of the Visigoths, who were now in possession of the greatest part of Spain, he checked his progress, and retired into Galicia, where he ended his days.

His successors, in imitation of this example, contented themselves with the kingdom of Galicia, and prudently kept aloof in all the disputes that arose between the Goths and Romans; by which means they maintained themselves in quiet possession of their sovereignty till the year 585, when they were totally subdued by Leovigild, king of the Visigoths, and their kingdom was reduced to a province of the Gothic monarchy, after it had subsisted, under princes of various character and fortune, for the space of one hundred and seventy-four years.

SECT. V.

FRANKS.

VARIOUS opinions have been entertained by historians concerning this people: but, as a repetition of these would be equally unimportant to our work, and uninteresting to the reader, we shall only observe that Bucherius, whose conjectures seem the most probable, describes them as a motley multitude of several ancient nations, dwelling beyond the Rhine, who, hav-

ing entered into a confederacy against the Romans, for the common safety, assumed the name of Franks; which signified, in their language, as it still does in ours, *free*. It is also certain, that many ancient nations are comprised, in ancient history, under this general denomination.

Considered in this point of view, the Franks inhabited, at a very early period, a tract of country which comprehends the present provinces of Westphalia, Hesse, and some adjacent states; and, in process of time, they extended themselves along the Rhine as far as the efflux of that river and the ocean.

With regard to their manners and character, Vopiscus has described them as a people addicted to treachery, and unmindful of the most solemn engagements: and Salvianus, blending their virtues and vices, observes that they were extremely hospitable to strangers, but much addicted to lying. They seem to have been always troublesome neighbours; for it was a common observation of Egonhardus, chancellor to Charles the Great, that he would choose a Frank for a friend, but not for a neighbour.

The first transaction of this people noticed in history is their irruption into Gaul, in the time of Aurelian, who killed seven hundred of their troops, sold three hundred, whom he had taken captives, into slavery, and compelled the rest to retire, with the loss of all their booty.

In the fourth year of Valerian's reign they received another signal defeat from Gallienus, but soon after returned with such a powerful body of auxiliaries, that the Romans deemed it expedient to lay aside hostilities, and court their alliance. Accordingly, a body of Franks were persuaded

suaded to serve, in the Roman army, against the Goths; and one of their chieftains was entrusted with the defence of the frontier of the empire.

About eight years after this event, the Franks committed many depredations in Gaul, and even penetrated into Spain, which they held in subjection for the space of twelve years. Some of them are said to have crossed over into Africa, with a design to enrich themselves with the spoils of that wealthy country; but the issue of that undertaking is passed over in silence.

On the demise of the emperor Aurelian, the Franks, in conjunction with the Vandals and Burgundians, broke into Gaul, and, having reduced seventy of the principal cities in the space of two years, congratulated themselves on their important acquisition: but, on the approach of Probus, they were compelled to withdraw all their forces; and were soon after reduced to the necessity of suing for peace on disadvantageous terms.

Notwithstanding this repulse, the Franks renewed their predatory incursions into various parts of the Roman territories, and committed such daring outrages, that Dioclesian was compelled to send a powerful armament against them; and Maximian deemed it advisable to chastise their insolence by carrying the war into their own country. This expedient was crowned with success; for the Franks were so violently alarmed at this unexpected invasion, that the greatest part of them threw down their arms, and two of their princes, Atec and Genobald, submissively entreated the emperor to confirm them in their respective kingdoms. A few years after this transaction the Franks made an irruption

tion into Batavia, and that part of Flanders which is watered by the river Escaut; but, Constantius Chlorus, having led a numerous army to the relief of those countries, they were obliged to surrender at discretion, and many of their families were transplanted into Gaul, where they were compelled to till the lands which themselves had wasted; to serve, when required, under the Roman banners; and to pay the customary tributes, as subjects of the empire.

During the reign of Constantine, the Franks made several incursions into Gaul; but all their exertions were rendered abortive by the vigilance of the emperor, and many of their chieftains were punished with exemplary rigour.

About the year 355, the Franks, having formed an alliance with the Saxons and Alemans, pillaged upwards of forty cities on the banks of the Rhine; desolated the adjacent provinces; and carried off an incredible number of captives; but, on the approach of Julian, who had been recently invested with the government of Gaul, they were overthrown with great slaughter.

The next considerable irruption of this warlike race occurred about three years after the death of Gratian, when they are said to have overrun all Belgic Gaul, pillaged the inhabitants without mercy, and burnt a great number of villages. Hereupon Quintinus attacked their troops with extraordinary fury, and compelled them to retire with the utmost precipitation; but, having imprudently followed them into the interior of their own country, his troops were exposed to inexpressible hardships, and most of them cut to pieces.

Pharamond, the son of Marcomir, is supposed

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to havs reigned over the Franks from the year 417 to 428. He appears to have been one of the most powerful princes among them; but we are not expressly told whether he had any authority over the rest. The same year in which he died, Aetius is said to have defeated the Franks in Gaul with great slaughter, and to have chased them entirely out of that province.

Clodio, the son and successor of Pharasmond, has been characterized by Gregory of Tours as an illustrious and patriotic prince. However, ancient historians have recorded but little respecting his reign, except that he extended his conquests as far as the Somme; destroyed the city of Treves; and made himself master of Cologne, while the principal inhabitants were feasting and revelling without the least apprehension of danger.

Upon the death of Clodio, which happened in the twentieth year of his reign, Merovæus assumed the sovereignty, and made some successful incursions into the present provinces of Mentz and Rheims. This prince is said, by Rorico, to have been regarded by his subjects with a truly filial affection; and, in a genealogical table of French kings prefixed to a manuscript life of Charles the Great, in the library at Brussels, he is represented as the head of the first race.

Merovæus was succeeded by his son Childeric, who, in the very commencement of his reign, abandoned himself to all manner of licentiousness, and loaded his subjects with such exorbitant taxes, that they soon drove him from the throne, but afterward recalled him. It appears, however, that he inherited the martial disposition of his ancestors, and was extremely desirous

of

of aggrandizing his country; for he extended his conquests as far as the Loire; reduced the cities of Paris and Angers, and made himself master of Orleans, after having defeated Odoacer, who came with a body of Saxons to its relief. He died at Tornacum, now Tournay, where his remains were discovered, in 1653, with many gold coins of the Roman emperors, the royal signet, and several other curious articles.

Childeric was succeeded by his son Clovis, or Clodovæus, about the year 482. But the particulars of this reign must be reserved for the history of France.

SECT. VI.

BURGUNDIANS.

THE Burgundians are supposed, by Orosius, Ammianus Marcellinus, and other writers, to have descended originally from the Roman soldiers who were appointed to guard the interior of Germany after the inhabitants had been subdued by Drusus Nero, and his brother Tiberius, the adopted sons of Augustus. But Pliny the elder conceives them to have been a German nation, descended from the Vindili or Vandals.

The Burgundians have been characterized, by their contemporaries, as the least warlike of all the tribes who inhabited Germany. The greatest part of them were mechanics; and, previously to their settling in Gaul, they used to resort in great numbers to that country, in order to procure a subsistence by following their respective professions.

professions. They were divided into several tribes, and every tribe was governed by its own king or chieftain, of whom several appear to have served in the Roman armies, and to have thought themselves peculiarly honoured by such dignities as the emperors occasionally conferred upon them.

With respect to their national transactions, nothing worthy of notice is recorded till the year 274, when they made an irruption into Gaul, and reduced upwards of seventy cities, but were driven out by Probus with considerable loss. In the reign of Dioclesian they returned into Gaul with a prodigious number of auxiliaries; but their design was totally frustrated, for many hundreds of them were swept off by a pestilence, and the remainder became an easy prey to the Romans.

About the year 413 they obtained that part of Gaul which borders on the Rhine, from Honorius, and remained peaceably in their new settlements for the space of twelve years; but, at the expiration of that time, they broke into Belgic Gaul, and, in conjunction with the Hunns and Franks, committed many cruel depredations. However, they were entirely defeated by Aetius, and their king, Gundicarius, was soon afterward murdered by his treacherous allies.

Gundiac, the successor of this unfortunate prince, obtained a signal victory over the Sueves in Spain; made himself master of several important cities in Gaul; and divided the adjacent lands with the Roman senators. He afterwards fought on behalf of the Romans, and defended the province of Auvergne against Euric, king of the Goths.

In

In the year 490 the Burgundians, under the command of their king Gundebald, entered Italy on pretence of asssisting Odoacer against Theodoric the Ostrogoth; but instead of performing any service for that prince, they ravaged Liguria with fire and sword, and carried off such vast numbers of captives, that there were not even sufficient inhabitants left to till the ground.

Sigismund, the son of Gundebald, had no sooner obtained the sovereignty than he sent a solemn embassy to Anastasius at Constantinople, acquainting him with his accession, and acknowledging himself a subject of the empire. Six years after this transaction he caused his son Sigeric to be put to death, on the malicious accusation of his second wife; but he was soon stung with remorse, and retired to the monastery of St. Mauritius, in Valois, to do penance for his heinous crime. After a short seclusion in this place, he returned to Lyons; but being immediately attacked by a powerful army of Franks, he again retired to a monastery, and assumed the habit of a monk; however, he was soon delivered up to the enemy, who threw him, with his wife and children, into a deep well, where they all perished.

Soon after this execution the Burgundians, who had submitted to the victorious enemy, threw off the yoke, and bestowed the regal title on Godemar. Hereupon Clodomir, king of the Burgundians, marched with all possible expedition to crush the rebellion, and an obstinate engagement ensued at Veseronce, which terminated in the defeat of the Burgundians; but Clodomir, having pursued the fugitive with more ardour than prudence, was unexpectedly surrounded

rounded, and cut to pieces. The Franks, being now destitute of a leader, deemed it advisable to put a stop to the war, and peace was accordingly concluded between the two nations.

Eight years after the battle of Vesorance, Childebert and Clotharius, kings of the Franks, having assembled a numerous army, invaded the territories of the Burgundians; reduced the city of Augustodunum; obliged Gondemar to elude destruction by a precipitate flight; and made themselves entire masters of the kingdom.

SECT. VII.

ALEMANS.

THIS nation, who made their first appearance about the year 214, are said, by Agathias, to have been, originally, a motley multitude, consisting of several nations. Their ancient territories are placed by St. Jerom, Aurelius Victor, and some other writers, in the present duchy of Wirtemberg. They were highly celebrated for their bravery and equestrian skill; and bore such an insurmountable hatred to the idea of slavery, that a number of females being destined for sale, in the time of Caracalla, eluded that misfortune by the desperate remedy of suicide. Their government appears to have been monarchical; and their religion was similar to that of the other German nations.

The Alemans, having joined the Chatti, and some other German tribes, against the Romans, about the year 214, were attacked by Caracalla

on the banks of the Mein, and defeated with great slaughter. However, that emperor eventually concluded a peace with them; distributed large sums among their troops; and even enlisted some of them in his body-guards. Some years afterward, however, they renewed their depredations in Gaul, for which Maximus carried the war into their own country, and reduced them to the utmost extremities.

Nothing material occurs respecting their transactions, from this period till the first year of the emperor Claudius, when they made an irruption into Italy, and advanced, without opposition, as far as the lake Benacus, near Verona; but were overthrown by the imperial troops, and obliged to retreat precipitately to their own country. In the following reign they made a vigorous attempt to retrieve their losses, and actually defeated the Roman forces who were sent out against them. However, whilst all the inhabitants of Italy were overwhelmed with consternation, and various religious ceremonies were solemnly performed at Rome, to avert the impending danger, Aurelian fell unexpectedly upon the barbarians, in the vicinage of Fano, and obtained three successive victories, so that the whole multitude were cut to pieces.

Notwithstanding this dreadful defeat, and the loss of sixty thousand of their men, who were afterward cut off by Constantius Chlorus, the Alemans continued to infest the empire with their predatory incursions till the year 378, when Gratian, having slain upwards of thirty thousand of their troops, and pursued the fugitive survivors to their own country, compelled them to surrender all their youth to serve in the Roman army,

army, and to submit to such other humiliating terms as he chose to prescribe.

Upon the destruction of the Western empire the Alemans obtained a settlement, by force of arms, in that part of Gaul which is now distinguished by the name of Alsace. From hence they marched into Germania Secunda, and wasted that province wlth fire and sword. But, being unexpectedly attacked by Clovis, king of the Franks, they were routed with great slaughter, and transplanted, by the victor, into the countries lying between the Alps and the Danube. From this time the Alemans had no kings of their own; but were subject partly to the Ostrogoths in Italy, and partly to the Franks in Gaul.

SECT. VIII.

GEPIDÆ.

THE Gepidæ were, indisputably, a Gothic nation; and possessed the same customs, manners, religion, and language, as the Goths and Vandals. They entered Scythia with the other Goths, and formed a settlement in the vicinage of Tanais and Palus Mæotis. Here they remained till the reign of Honorius and Arcadius, when they removed to the neighbourhood of Singidunum, on the other side the Danube.

They are said to have gained a signal victory over the Burgundians, under the conduct of their king Fastida; and joined the A. D. 248.

the Goths in their bold attempt on the empire, during the reign of Claudius; but they were overthrown by that prince, with great slaughter. About thirty years after this event a prodigious number of their troops were cut off by Probus; and in the year 451 they were compelled to assist Attila in his famous expedition into Gaul.

On the demise of Attila they resolved to emancipate themselves from the dominion of the Hunns; and accordingly fought with such success under their king Ardaric, that they not only effected their design but also recovered the country of ancient Dacia, which was henceforth called Gepidia.

A. D. 552. A dispute having arisen between the Lombards and Gepidæ concerning the boundaries of their respective territories, the latter broke into the country of the Lombards, and committed many cruel depredations; but they were compelled to retire with considerable loss; and a peace was soon after concluded, by the mediation of Justinian. However, about twenty years after this period, Cunimundus, king of the Gepidæ, renewed hostilities; and Alboinus, king of the Lombards, collected a numerous army, in order to decide the controversy by a general engagement. Accordingly, a pitched battle was fought with extraordinary fury on both sides, but the Gepidæ were at length defeated with prodigious slaughter, and the skull of the unfortunate Cunimundus was converted into a drinking cup, which Alboinus used, ever afterward, at all his banquets and public entertainments.

From this period the Gepidæ had no king of their

their own, but lived in subjugation either to the Lombards, who had seized on their country of Dacia, or to the princes of the neighbouring nations.

SECT. IX.

HERULI.

THE Heruli were originally a Gothic nation, inhabiting the countries beyond the Danube, where they continued till the year 491, when great numbers of them were destroyed by the Lombards, and the survivors driven from their habitations. After their expulsion they settled in Pomerania, and then removed into North Dacia; but being oppressed by the Gepidæ, they implored the protection of Anastasius, who permitted them to cross the Danube, and allowed them certain lands in Thrace, on condition of their serving occasionally in the Roman armies. Meanwhile many of their countrymen took their route westward, and, arriving at the ocean, set sail for Thule, or the peninsula of Scandinavia, where they established themselves without opposition.

The Heruli appear to have had some laws peculiar to themselves; for among them, when persons had attained to a certain age, they were placed on a pile of wood, put to death, and their bodies reduced to ashes. When a man died, his wife was either necessitated to strangle herself on his tomb or become an object of universal contempt; and human sacrifices were frequently offered to appease the gods of the

 country.

country. The generality of the people were famed for courage, swiftness, and activity; but their manners were universally depraved, and all manner of lewdness was practised without shame or controul. The government is said to have been monarchical; but it appears, from good authority, that their kings possessed a very small share of authority, and differed but little, in any respect, from their subjects.

The first considerable irruption of this people into the empire happened about the year 526, but they were soon driven back, by Gallienus, the son of Valerian, with considerable loss. They afterward broke into Asia, Greece, and Gaul, and committed some daring outrages in each of these countries; but were eventually defeated by Gallienus and Maximian.

About the year 370 they were subdued by the victorious arms of Attila; and in 491 were overthrown by the Lombards with such prodigious slaughter, that many of them were compelled to flee into different countries, in order to elude the vengeance of their conquerors.

Justinian, being provoked at their ungrateful behaviour toward the Romans, who had afforded them some important succours in their distress, drove them entirely out of the empire; but he was afterward reconciled to them, and employed several bodies of their troops to serve, with his own subjects, at Colchis, and in Italy. During this reign great numbers of the Heruli embraced christianity; but the change of their religion effected no reformation in their lives. Shortly after the demise of Justinian their kingdom was destroyed, and themselves entirely subjugated by the Lombards.

SECT.

SECT. X.

MARCOMANS.

THE Marcomans resided, originally, near the springs of the Danube, whence they removed, under the command of their king Marobodus, into the country of the Boians or Bohemia. They appear to have agreed with all the other German nations in customs, manners, and religion; and their principal characteristics were an insatiable thirst of military fame, and an unconquerable abhorrence of slavery.

In the reign of Augustus, their country was ravaged, and themselves reduced to extremities by Tiberius, but they soon obtained an advantageous peace of the emperor. During the reign of Tiberius they waged an unsuccessful war with the Cheruscans, and Marobodus was driven from the throne by his rebellious subjects.

In the memorable war which this people, in conjunction with other German nations, made on the empire, the Romans were frequently defeated with dreadful slaughter; the emperor Aurelius himself was in imminent danger of perishing with his whole army; and, though the whole force of the empire was employed against them, the invaders resisted every effort for the space of fifteen years, and eventually obtained a peace upon very reasonable terms.

About the year 396 Fritigil, queen of the Marcomans, embraced christianity, and, in compliance with the request of St. Ambrose, persuaded her consort to subject his kingdom to the empire.

empire. In the time of Attila the Marcomans were subdued, and obliged to serve against their former allies; but on the death of that barbarian they threw off the yoke, submitted themselves to Marcian, and served the empire to the last with unshaken courage and fidelity.

SECT. XI.

QUADIANS.

THE Quadians were a warlike nation, inhabiting the country which is now called Moravia, and resembling all the other German tribes in their customs, manners, and religion.

They appear to have assisted their countrymen against Lollius, Germanicus, Caius, and Galba, who attempted the reduction of Germany, and joined the Marcomans in the memorable war which that nation waged with the empire during the reign of Aurelius; but they were defeated with considerable loss, and their king Ariogeses, being taken prisoner, was confined for life to the city of Alexandria.

In the fourth year of the emperor Valerian, the Quadians, in conjunction with the Sarmatians, invaded and ravaged the province of Illyricum; but they were repulsed, with great slaughter, by Probus, afterward emperor, but at that time only tribune of a legion. They afterwards broke into the provinces of Mœsia and Pannonia, and committed many depredations. However, on the approach of Constantius, they retired with precipitation, and earnestly sued for

for peace, which was granted, on condition of their delivering up a certain number of hostages, and releasing all the Romans whom they had taken captive during the war.

To revenge the death of their king Gabenius, who had been assassinated by Marcellianus, duke of Valeria, the Quadians crossed the Danube, in 374; laid waste the country to a great extent, and, falling upon two Roman legions, cut them entirely to pieces. At length, however, Valentinian I. marched in person against them, and carried the war into their own country, which he ravaged with fire and sword. He then took up his winter quarters at Bregetio, whither the Quadians immediately sent ambassadors to sue for peace; but the emperor, instead of granting their request, threatened to extirpate the whole nation, and spoke with such uncommon violence, that he burst a blood-vessel, and expired, almost instantly, in the arms of his attendants.

In the year 379, the Quadians renewed their depredations in Illyricum, but were soon driven out by the emperor Gratian: and in 407 they made an irruption into Gaul, which they ravaged without mercy. However, it is highly probable, that they were either totally subdued or extirpated, as historians have taken no farther notice of their affairs.

SECT.

SECT. XII.

SARMATIANS.

THIS numerous and warlike nation appears to have been divided into several tribes, and to have possessed the extensive tract of land which comprehends the present Poland, Russia, and great part of Tartary. Each tribe seems to have been governed by its own king; for we read of the kings of the Roxolani, of the Iazyges, and of the Bastarnæ: but, as they were all blended by the Romans under the general name of Sarmatæ, their history must consequently be given as that of a collective nation.

About the year of the Christian æra, 69, the Sarmatians made an irruption into the province of Mœsia; pillaged many of the inhabitants; defeated two Roman cohorts, and retired, without molestation, to their own country. But, upon their repeating the incursion, they were vigorously attacked by Marcus Aponius Saturnius, and almost entirely cut to pieces.

Notwithstanding this defeat, they broke into Mœsia in the first year of the emperor Vespasian; and, having murdered the governor, ravaged the country to a great extent. However, on the arrival of Rubrias Gallus, they were utterly overthrown, and compelled to repass the Danube with all possible expedition.

In the year 165, all the Sarmatian tribes espoused the cause of the Marcomans against Aurelius; but they were defeated with such prodigious slaughter, that one of their kings, named

Zantichus.

Zantichus, came in person, with all the chief men of his nation, to throw himself at the emperor's feet, and sue for peace.

The Carpi, a Sarmatian tribe, having been disappointed of an annual pension from the emperor, broke into Mœsia, about the year 238; committed many outrages, and returned home unmolested, the Romans being then engaged in the civil war between Maximinus, Maximus, and Balbinus. In 260, the Sarmatians were expelled from Dacia and Pannonia by Regillianus: and in 278, the emperor Probus alarmed them so effectually by marching into Thrace, which they had lately ravaged, that they hastily abandoned all their booty, and sent a deputation of their countrymen to sue for peace, which Probus granted on their solemnly promising to remain beyond the Danube, and supply the Roman armies with a stipulated quota of troops.

On the demise of Probus they again crossed the Danube, and ravaged the greatest part of Illyricum: but the emperor, Carus, marched against them without delay, and chased them out of his territories, with the loss of sixteen thousand of their bravest combatants. During the reign of Galerius, the whole nation of the Carpi submitted to the Romans, and were afterward transplanted, by Dioclesian, into Pannonia.

Constantine the Great is said to have gained several important victories over the Sarmatians; but, on their applying to him for succour against the Goths, in 332, he readily granted their request, and sent a powerful body of troops to their assistance. However, they acted with such base ingratitude toward the Romans, that the emperor

emperor was compelled to chastise their insolence by carrying the war into their own country, where they were totally defeated on the banks of the Marisus.

In the year 356 they made a fresh incursion into the empire, and pillaged the provinces of Mœsia and Pannonia; but, on the approach of Constantius, they were repulsed, and shortly after obliged to sue for peace.

In 378 the Sarmatians resolved to cross the Danube, in order to join the Goths against the empire; but Theodosius, afterward emperor, arrested their progress in Thrace, and drove them back with considerable loss.

In the time of Attila they were reduced, and compelled to serve in the armies of that famous warrior; but, on his decease, they recovered their liberty, and placed themselves under the protection of Marcian, who permitted them to settle in Mœsia, Pannonia, and the other provinces bordering on the Danube. From this period nothing particular occurs respecting their national concerns; except that they were eventually subdued by the Goths.

SECT. XIII.

DACIANS.

THE Dacians have been represented, by Jornandes and other historians, as a Gothic nation, who resided originally in the country which now comprehends Moldavia, Walachia, and part of Transylvania, whence they were afterward

afterward transplanted into Illyricum. They were deemed the most formidable of all the northern nations, not only on account of their extraordinary strength and bravery, but because they considered death as the termination of misery, and the commencement of incomparable felicity. Hence the emperor Julian was heard to observe, that they were as ready to expose themselves to the most imminent dangers as to undertake a journey. Their government was monarchical; and their customs, manners, and religion, bore a strong resemblance to those of the other Gothic nations, which have already been described.

Their first irruption into the empire happened under the reign of Augustus; but, at the approach of Drusus, they retired precipitately to their own country. In the year 86 they broke into the provinces of Mœsia and Pannonia, and committed such cruel depredations as overwhelmed the Romans with dismay, and obliged Domitian to grant them an advantageous peace.

The emperor Trajan, provoked at their hostile proceedings against his subjects, resolved to chastise them with exemplary punishment. Accordingly, having marched with incredible expedition to the banks of the Danube, he ravaged their country with fire and sword; defeated their king, Decebalus, in a pitched battle; and compelled him to make suitable submissions. Decebalus, impatient of controul, and thirsting for vengeance, soon violated the peace which he himself had earnestly requested, and fought with the utmost desperation against the Romans: but being repeatedly defeated by Trajan, he put an end to his own life; and his dominions were

reduced to the form of a Roman province. Various attempts were made by the Dacians to recover their liberty during the reigns of Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius, and Caracalla: but all their exertions were rendered abortive; and they were, consequently, obliged to live in subjection to the empire till the year 274, when the greatest part of their country was seized by the Goths, and most of the inhabitants were dispersed among the neighbouring barbarians, with whom they gradually became incorporated.

SECT. XIV.

BULGARIANS.

THIS numerous and warlike nation are said to have come, about the year 485, from Asiatic Scythia to the Tanais; and to have removed thence, in the time of the emperor Zeno, to the banks of the Danube. They invaded Thrace, under the conduct of a chief called Libertem, with a design to settle in that province; but Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, repulsed them with great slaughter. However, in 499, they repeated their hostile visit, and overthrew the Roman commander Aristus, at the head of a numerous army.

From this period they continued tolerably quiet till the year 539, when they passed the Danube, under the conduct of their two kings, Vulger and Droggo; ravaged Mœsia in the most cruel manner; and defeated some Roman troops with great slaughter: but, on the approach

proach of Acun, one of Justinian's officers, they were attacked in a disadvantageous situation, and utterly overthrown, both their kings being cut to pieces with the greatest part of their armies, and the rest compelled to elude destruction by a precipitate retreat. Notwithstanding this disaster, a numerous body of Bulgarians returned the next year, and committed many depredations in Thrace; but they were soon attacked and defeated by the governor of Illyricum, who sent many of them, under a guard, to Constantinople. For this and the preceding victory, Justinian assumed the surname of Bulgaricus.

No farther notice is taken, in history, of this people till the time of Constantine III. when they made an irruption into the Roman territories bordering on the Danube; compelled a body of Roman troops to retire into the fortified places; and ravaged the open country without molestation. At length, the emperor persuaded them to return to their own country, upon condition of their receiving an annual pension. About this time Alczecus, one of the Bulgarian chiefs, led a considerable number of his countrymen to Pavia, and prevailed on Grimoaldus, king of the Lombards, to grant him a new settlement in the dukedom of Benevento.

Justinian II. not only refused to continue the pension which his father had granted the Bulgarians, but invaded their country with a numerous army, and reduced many of the inhabitants to a very pitiable condition. However, his design was eventually frustrated, and himself compelled to conclude a dishonourable peace.

 In

In the year 750, the Bulgarians, being highly incensed at the treatment which their ambassadors had received at Constantinople, broke into the Roman territories, and, having pillaged the country as far as the long wall, returned home with an immense booty. Hereupon Constantine, surnamed Copronymus, marched into their country, and began to lay it waste; but, the natives having attacked him in a narrow defile, he was repulsed with ignominy, and pursued to the very gates of his own metropolis. However, about thirteen years after this transaction, Constantine gave battle to the Bulgarians, on the borders of Thrace, and, after a most obstinate conflict of eight hours continuance, obtained a decisive victory.

Discouraged by this afflictive event, the Bulgarians sent a solemn embassy to Constantinople, in order to sue for peace; but the terms on which they obtained their request were so hard, that they resolved to embrace the first favourable opportunity of renewing the war. Accordingly, while most of the imperial troops were employed, in the east, against the Saxons, they broke into the Roman territories, with a body of twelve thousand men, and began to revenge their late defeat, by committing the most cruel outrages: but Constantine marched against them with so much celerity, and attacked them with such resistless fury, that scarcely a single Bulgarian escaped his avenging sword.

Elerich, king of the Bulgarians, being driven from the throne by his rebellious subjects, implored the protection of Leo III. and was received at Constantinople with every mark of kindness

kindness and hospitality. During his residence in that city he embraced the christian faith, and espoused a relation of the empress. Constantine Porphyrogenitus, the successor of Leo, attacked the Bulgarians in the eleventh year of his reign; but the issue of that war is uncertain.

During the reign of Nicephorus, the Bulgarians made an incursion into the Roman provinces, under the conduct of their king Cromus; and, having made themselves masters of Sardica, put the whole garrison, consisting of six thousand men, to the sword. To chastise this insolence, Nicephorus led a formidable army into Bulgaria, where he reduced most of the villages to ashes, and massacred all the inhabitants who fell into his hands without pity or distinction; but, by an extraordinary effort of the enemy, his army was totally defeated, himself slain, and his skull converted into a drinking cup for the kings of Bulgaria.

An obstinate conflict seems to have happened, about the year 814, between the Romans and Bulgarians, in the province of Thrace; but victory declared in favour of the former, and the barbarians were so discouraged by their defeat, that they continued tolerably quiet till the year 877, when Simeon, king of the Bulgarians, crossed the Danube, and penetrated as far as Macedon, which he ravaged with fire and sword. Exasperated at these outrages, and the cruelties lately exercised on a body of Roman troops, the emperor, Leo V. prevailed on the Hungarians to invade Bulgaria on one side, while he should lead a numerous army into the other. This project being immediately accomplished, Simeon

was reduced to extremity, and compelled to sue for peace; but he soon revenged himself on the Hungarians, and fell upon the Romans with such irresistible fury, that their army was overthrown with prodigious slaughter, and Leo was obliged to make peace upon very disadvantageous terms.

About the year 992, Simeon broke into the empire with a numerous body of forces; defeated the Romans with great slaughter in the plains of Pegæ; and made himself master of the important city of Adrianople. He then ravaged the provinces of Thrace and Macedon, and actually marched to the gates of Constantinople; but, Romanus having, in a pathetic speech, remonstrated against the cruelty of shedding christian blood, and expatiated on the necessity of uniting against the common enemy, the Saracens, he laid aside his intentions, and readily concluded a treaty of peace. Shortly after his return to Bulgaria, Simeon led his warlike troops against the Chrobati; but here his usual fortune deserted him, and he was overthrown with such prodigious loss, that he immediately sunk into despondency, and died about three days after his defeat.

The emperor, John Zimisces, appears to have rendered the Bulgarians some important services against a barbarous nation called Russi; for which the former voluntarily submitted to his government. However, they revolted from his successor, Basilius, and committed such daring outrages in the empire, that it was found indispensably necessary to check their insolence, by carrying the war into their own country. Accordingly

cordingly Basilius, having marched against them in person, reduced several of their strongest fortresses; defeated their troops with great slaughter; and sent fifteen thousand prisoners, whom he had deprived of sight, to their king Samuel. This shocking spectacle had such an effect on the royal Bulgarian, that he immediately fainted, and died, shortly after, of unconquerable grief.

Samuel was succeeded by his son Gabriel, but, he being assassinated soon after his accession, the crown devolved on the regicide, Bladisthlabus, who immediately acquainted the emperor with his promotion, and acknowledged himself a vassal of the empire. Basilius, however, paid no attention to this embassy; but continued his military operations with unremitting ardor, till, after several obstinate conflicts, Bladisthlabus was slain, with the greatest part of his troops, and Bulgaria was completely subjugated, about the year of the christian æra 1017.

The Bulgarians attempted to shake off their yoke under the reign of Michael IV; but their exertions were totally frustrated, and they afterward lived peaceably under the Constantinopolitan emperors, whom they occasionally assisted against the Turks and Latins.

In 1206, John, king* of Bulgaria, having relieved the city of Adrianople, routed the Latin army with great slaughter, and took Baldwin himself prisoner. On his arrival at Ternova, the capital of Bulgaria, he caused the hands

* The Bulgarians were permitted to live under their own kings, who were, however, tributary to the emperors of Constantinople.

and

and feet of the unfortunate emperor to be amputated, and then caused him to be thrown into a neighbouring valley, where he languished, for three days, in excruciating agony, and was then devoured by birds and beasts of prey.

In 1275, Stephen, the fourth king of Hungary, having obtained a decisive victory over Cea, prince of Bulgaria, compelled the Bulgarians to acknowledge him for their sovereign. Hence Stephen and his successors were called "kings of Hungary and Bulgaria;" which title passed, with the Hungarian kingdom, to the princes of the house of Austria.

About the year 1369 the Bulgarians made a violent exertion for the recovery of their liberty, and attempted the reduction of Adrianople, which had been taken by the Turks; but Amurath I. defeated their troops with great slaughter; and his successor, Bajazet, reduced their country to a province of the Turkish empire.

OSTROGOTHS.

AS the origin, customs, and manners of the Goths, from whom this people differed only in their * name and situation, have been already noticed in the preceding chapter, we shall, in order to avoid repetition, commence their history with the reign of their famous king Hermanaric, and relate the most interesting concerns of their nation, from that period till their final expulsion from Italy.

Hermanaric, king of the Ostrogoths, was descended from the illustrious family of Amali, and signalized himself in so many engagements, that he has been compared, by the ancients, to Alexander the Great. The Heruli, the Venedi, the Æstii, and many other nations, were successively reduced by his extraordinary valour; and Ablavius has asserted, that he was obeyed by most of the tribes in Scythia and Germany. This account, however, is probably exaggerated, as Hermanaric was so well apprized of his inability to withstand the Hunns, who invaded his country in 376, that he chose rather to kill himself than to behold the calamities that threatened his subjects.

* The Goths, previously to their leaving Scandinavia, were called Visigoths and Ostrogoths, or Western and Eastern Goths, from their situation to the west and east: the former inhabiting that part of Scandinavia which borders on Denmark, and the latter the more eastern parts near the Baltic.

Upon

Upon the demise of this prince, his son Vithimer assumed the regal title; and boldly led his troops against the enemy; but he was soon defeated and slain. His son Vitheric retired, with many of his countrymen, into the present Podolia, but nothing farther is recorded of his transactions.

About the year 453 the Ostrogoths obtained permission to settle in Pannonia, and received an annual pension, on condition of their guarding the imperial frontiers, and serving, when required, in the Roman armies. They were scarcely established in their new territory before the Hunns fell upon them in the neighbourhood of Sirmium; but Valemir, prince of the Ostrogoths, defeated the invaders with great slaughter, and compelled them to take refuge in that part of Scythia which bordered on the Danube.

In the year 455 the Ostrogoths, being provoked by Leo, made an irruption into Illyricum, and committed many depredations; but they were repulsed with considerable loss, and a peace was soon after concluded between the nations.

During the short reign of Glycerius, the Ostrogoths resolved to make war on the empire, and accordingly divided their forces into two bodies, one of which was to invade Italy under the command of Videmir, while the other marched under Theodomir against the emperor of the East. This plan was reduced to execution; but Videmir died shortly after his arrival in Italy, and Theodomir was prevailed on, by a profusion of rich presents, to abandon his daring enterprise.

Theodoric, the son and successor of Theodomir,

mir, appears to have espoused the cause of Zeno against Basiliscus with extraordinary zeal; but the ungrateful behaviour of that emperor soon obliged him to renounce his alliance, and to take up arms in his own defence. However, on Zeno's yielding him part of Mœsia and Dacia, giving him the command of the troops of the household, and naming him consul for the ensuing year, Theodoric put a stop to the depredations of his soldiers, and performed some prodigies of valour against the usurper Leontius, who was eventually defeated, and driven to the fortress of Papyra, in Cilicia. A second disagreement with the emperor induced Theodoric to retire from Constantinople, to renew his ravages in Thrace, and even to form the design of besieging Constantinople; but whilst the inhabitants of that city were overwhelmed with consternation at his approach, he marched back to Mœsia, and, at the emperor's request, consented to turn his arms against Odoacer, who, having put Orestes to death, and deprived Augustulus of the imperial ensigns, had assumed the title of king of Italy.

Next year Theodoric, having assembled a numerous army, and received some auxiliaries from Constantinople, began his march toward Italy; and, after defeating some troops of Gepidæ and Sarmatians who opposed his passage, came to an engagement with Odoacer, who was soon overpowered, and obliged to shut himself up in Ravenna. Theodoric, having now no enemy to oppose his progress, made himself master of Milan, Pavia, and some other places of importance; but Odoacer, having ventured from his retreat with a select body of forces,

soon changed the aspect of affairs, and reduced the Ostrogoth to shut himself up, with all his followers, in the city of Pasia. However, Theodoric was relieved by a reinforcement from the Visigoths; Italy was gradually subjugated; and Odoacer was driven to such extremities, that, after a long siege in Ravenna, he submitted to the victor, who, notwithstanding a solemn promise to the contrary, caused him to be put to death.

Theodoric, having thus delivered Italy from the insupportable yoke of the barbarians, assumed the diadem, amidst the acclamations of the people; while the emperor of the East congratulated him on his brilliant success, and cheerfully acknowledged his sovereignty.

To the toils of war succeeded the cares of domestic government, in which the conqueror acquitted himself with such equity and moderation, that the generality of the Italians were equally fascinated with his character and government. The same laws, magistrates, and policy, were prudently retained. Such of the natives as had been most zealous in defence of Odoacer were generously pardoned; the Ligurians, who had long groaned beneath the oppressive yoke of the Burgundians, were ransomed; liberty of conscience was allowed in all matters of religion; and the sweets of peace were happily mingled with those of security.

Theodoric, having visited Rome, and contributed largely toward the repairs of that august city, resolved to chase the Burgundians and Franks out of Gaul, and re-unite that country to Italy; but, as the Burgundians were then a very powerful nation, and masters of all the passes

passes in the Alps, he deemed it expedient to conceal part of his intention. Accordingly, he formed an alliance with Clovis king of the Franks, and prevailed on him to invade the Burgundians on one side, while himself should attack them on the other—a project which soon put him in possession of Marseilles, with all the countries lying between the Alps, the Durance, the Lower Rhone, and the Mediterranean. Some years after this event, Clovis having killed Alaric in battle, and defeated his army, the king of the Ostrogoths resolved to check his progress; and accordingly compelled him to raise the siege of Carcassone, which he had recently invested. Next year the Franks attempted the reduction of Arles, then inhabited by the Visigoths; but Theodoric sent such powerful succours to his countrymen, that this project, like the preceding one, was rendered abortive.

Some time after these transactions Theodoric turned his arms against the Alemans; but nothing satisfactory has been recorded of this war, except that he obliged them to pay an annual tribute; and subdued the inhabitants of Suevia.

Hitherto Theodoric had swayed the sceptre in Italy with such prudence, justice, and moderation, that (independent of his religious principles, which were strongly tinctured with the vile heresy of Arius) he deserved to be proposed as an example to all crowned heads; but the lustre of all his virtues suffered a sensible diminution, about this time, by an act of tyrannic and unwarrantable cruelty. Bœtius, a man of extraordinary learning and abilities, who had been twice honoured with the consulate, and was

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descended from one of the most illustrious families in Rome; who had devoted near eighteen years to the study of philosophy at Athens; who had translated the works of Aristotle, Pythagoras, Nicomachus, Euclid, Archimedes, and Plato, into the Latin language, for the service of his countrymen; and who was equally venerated by every good man on account of his erudition and morality. This man, being accused of treasonable practices, was unjustly banished to Pavia, together with his father-in-law Symmachus, who, like himself, was universally famed for his extraordinary abilities and unblemished character. The illustrious exiles submitted with resignation to their hard fate, and Bœtius calmly undertook the excellent composition which he entitled *De Consolatione*. But whilst he was employed in benefiting mankind by his labours, fresh accusations were laid against him at Ravenna, and the emperor, to the utter astonisment of all Italy, was persuaded to pass sentence of death both upon him and Symmachus. The executioner, however, had scarcely performed his bloody task before Theodoric was convinced of his own injustice, and abandoned himself to such inordinate grief as soon occasioned his death, in the seventy-second year of his age, and the thirty-fourth of his reign.

Theodoric had, at the time of his death, two grandsons, Amalaric, king of the Visigoths, and Athalaric, son of Amalasuntha. To the former he delivered up all the countries in Gaul and Spain belonging to the Visigoths; and declared the latter his successor in Italy, and in all his other dominions.

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As Athalaric was, at this time, too young to assume the goverment, his mother, Amalasuntha, took charge of the public affairs, and acted with such prudence and equity, both toward the inhabitants of Italy and their allies, that Theodoric was scarcely missed by the public. Some of the Gothic lords, however, were highly incensed at her mode of educating the young prince; and insisted so warmly on the dismissal of his Italian tutors, that she was obliged to submit to their desires; and Athalaric, being now freed from restraint, abandoned himself to such debaucheries as put a period to his life in the eighth year of his reign.

Amalasuntha had suffered so severely, even during her son's life time, from the factions and discontent of the Ostrogoths, that she now deemed it indispensably necessary to take a colleague in the government, and accordingly made choice of her cousin Theodotus, a man of great erudition, and descended from the illustrious house of Amali. In this choice, however, the queen was peculiarly unfortunate; for Theodotus, notwithstanding his birth and accomplishments, was, in reality, destitute of gratitude, honor, or probity, and scrupled not to commit the vilest actions when stimulated by his own unbridled passions. On his first accession to the throne he solemnly engaged, upon oath, that his cousin should exercise her former authority without controul, and, in his letter to the Roman senate, acknowledged himself entirely indebted to the queen for his new dignity. But the mask of dissimulation was soon laid aside, and the ill fated Amalasuntha was banished to a solitary island

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in the lake Bolsena, and there cruelly put to death.

To revenge the death of this princess, who had on every occasion testified her friendship to the Constantinopolitan government, Justinian resolved to make war upon the Ostrogoths; and accordingly ordered Mundus, one of his principal officers, to march into Dalmatia, and attempt the reduction of Salonæ, in order to open a passage into Italy, while Belisarius, who was invested with the supreme command, should make a descent upon Sicily, with four thousand legionaries, and eight thousand auxiliaries.

A. D. 535. The emperor's orders were immediately executed, and crowned with great success; for Mundus, after a faint resistance, made himself master of Salonæ; and Belisarius effected the reduction of Sicily with more expedition than he could possibly have expected. At Palermo, indeed, he was engaged with extraordinary fury by the Gothic garrison; but, after some time, he compelled them to surrender, and, by that exploit, struck such terror into the neighbouring provinces, that Abrutium, Lucania, Puglia, Samnium, and Calabria, made voluntary submissions; and the city of Naples, though obstinately defended, was soon given up to the plunder of the victorious Romans.

Theodotus, alarmed at this formidable invasion, which he had neither courage nor inclination to repress, entered into a private conference with the Constantinopolitan ambassador, and shamefully consented to resign the kingdom to Justinian, on condition of receiving an annual pension suitable to his dignity. The emperor readily

readily embraced this proposal; lands were assigned to Theodotus out of the imperial domain; and Belisarius was ordered to take possession of Italy.

This agreement, however, was soon violated; for Theodotus, hearing that the Roman army in Dalmatia had been suddenly attacked and defeated, refused, with great haughtiness, to fulfil the articles of the treaty, and even threatened Justinian's ambassador with death for presuming to expostulate on the impropriety of his conduct.

Exasperated at this behaviour, Justinian dispatched Constantianus to levy new forces in Illyricum, and ordered Belisarius to pursue the war with vigor, and use his utmost efforts for reannexing Italy to the empire. Hereupon Constantianus entered Dalmatia at the head of a formidable army, and defeated the Ostrogoths with great slaughter; while Belisarius, having vanquished all the provinces which compose the present kingdom of Naples, marched his victorious troops to the neighbourhood of Rome.

In this situation of affairs, the Ostrogoths, having vainly attempted to conclude a peace with Belisarius, deposed their cowardly king, Theodotus; and invested with the regal title one Vitiges, who, though of mean extraction, had acquired a considerable degree of celebrity by his prudence and valour in some preceding wars. Theodotus, overwhelmed with consternation at this occurrence, quitted Rome with the utmost precipitation, and retired to Ravenna, but he was soon overtaken and put to death, after an inglorious reign of about three years. Theudegisclus shared the fate of his pusillani-

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mous father, so that the new king was now firmly established on the throne without any competitor.

Vitiges, after exhorting his countrymen, by a circular letter, to exert their ancient valour in defence of a kingdom which belonged to them by right of conquest; and obliging the principal inhabitants of Rome to take an oath of fidelity, removed to Ravenna, where he assembled the Ostrogoths from all quarters, and formed an encampment under the city walls.

Meanwhile Belisarius, having taken suitable precautions for the defence of his new conquests in Campania, approached the city of Rome, which he entered without resistance, and re-united to the empire sixty years after it had been reduced by Odoacer, and thirty-four after it had submitted to Theodoric. The walls and other fortifications of this august city were now carefully repaired; the granaries filled with corn; and every precaution taken against a siege which Vitiges, in the urgency of his affairs, might probably resolve to form.

Whilst Belisarius was thus employed at Rome, and the greatest part of Samnium, with many cities of Tuscany, voluntarily received Roman garrisons, Vitiges formed a confederacy with the Franks, and marched, at the head of an hundred and fifty thousand men, to the vicinage of Rome, where a bloody conflict ensued between him and Belisarius; but the latter eventually chased the Ostrogoths to their camp, and entered the city amidst universal acclamations.

Vitiges, being now resolved to invest the city without delay, used every effort to distress the garrison and inhabitants for want of water, and showed

showed himself an able commander both in contriving his military engines and disposing the attacks. But his adversary made so vigorous a defence, and was attended with such brilliant success in his occasional sallies, that, in the space of seven months, the besiegers lost above forty thousand men.

The Romans who had long murmured against Belisarius for involving them in the calamities of a siege, were so elated with the success that attended an exertion of some auxiliaries from Constantinople, that they insisted on putting the whole to the issue of a general engagement—in consequence of which their forces were defeated with great loss, and narrowly escaped utter destruction. At length, however, while the citizens trembled with apprehension at each attack of the enemy, and their numbers were sadly reduced by the united scourges of pestilence and famine, a body of auxiliaries, consisting of three thousand Isaurians, eight hundred Thracians, and thirteen hundred horse of other nations, arrived at Ostia, and entered Rome, by the Ostian gate, while the forces of Vitiges were fully employed against Belisarius in another quarter.

The Ostrogoths were no sooner informed of the arrival of these troops than they began to despair of effecting their purpose, and, after a truce of three months, which was granted by Belisarius, they broke up the siege and marched to Rimini, which had been taken by the Romans.

Whilst Vitiges was employed before this city, and Uraia, his sisters' son, was dispatched to recover Milan, Narses arrived in Picenum with five thousand Romans and two thousand Heruli; and,

and, Belisarius having advanced to meet him, the two armies joined at Firmum, now Fermo, where a council of war was held to consider whether it would be most expedient to relieve Rimini or to besiege Auximum, a strong town then in possession of the enemy. Belisarius was apprehensive that if they marched to Rimini the Ostrogoths would sally out of Auximum, and harrass the neighbouring country, which had recently submitted to the Romans; but a pathetic letter from Rimini overbalanced this consideration, and induced the brave general to succour his countrymen. Accordingly, having left a sufficient number of troops to overawe the garrison of Auximum, he divided his army into three bodies, one of which embarked in a great number of vessels, another marched along the coast, under the conduct of Martinus; and the third followed Narses and Belisarius across the mountains. This prudent division of the forces was crowned with complete success; for Vitiges, alarmed at the appearance of a fleet, and the approach of two distinct armies, raised the siege, and retreated with such precipitation, that the greatest part of his baggage was left behind.

At this important juncture an unfortunate misunderstanding arose between the Roman generals, and their jealousies were carried to such an height, that Narses actually refused to serve under Belisarius, and a division of the forces ensued, which consequently retarded the reduction of the country, and gave the enemy leisure to provide for their own defence. The cities of Urbinum, Imola, and Urbiventum, were indeed taken by the imperial troops; but Vitiges, in the mean

mean time, made himself master of Milan, massacred the inhabitants, and ravaged the whole province of Liguria.

Narses being now recalled to Constantinople, and Vitiges employed in negociation with Chosroes, it was deemed advisable to pursue the war with all possible vigor. Accordingly Belisarius marched with eleven thousand men to Auximum, and at the same time sent a strong detachment, under one of his lieutenants, to attempt the reduction of Fæsulæ.

Meanwhile the Franks, supposing that both nations were materially weakened by hostilities, resolved to attack them without delay, and seize on the country, for which so many struggles had been made. Accordingly Theodebert, regardless of the solemn oaths he had taken both to the Romans and Ostrogoths, passed the Alps, at the head of an hundred and fifty thousand men, and penetrated into Liguria. As they had carefully abstained from pillaging the country on their march the Ostrogoths were elated at their arrival, and suffered them to enter their camp, near the Po, without opposition; but they were soon undeceived, for the treacherous invaders, falling upon them by surprise, chased them into the open country with great slaughter, and seized on all the baggage. A body of Romans, who lay at a small distance, perceiving the sudden flight of the Ostrogoths, concluded that they had been defeated by Belisarius, and, in that opinion, hastened to the assistance of the victor; but the Franks turning suddenly upon them they were utterly overthrown, and compelled to retreat into Tuscany, whence they sent an account of their disaster to Belisarius.

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The Franks, being now in possession of both camps, found a considerable quantity of provisions; but these being soon consumed by their numerous army, and the circumjacent country entirely exhausted, they were compelled to resign all thoughts of advancing farther in quest of new conquests; and, an expostulatory letter from Belisarius having demonstrated the absurdity of the enterprise, Theodebert gave orders to march, and returned home with an immense booty.

Some time after the retreat of this redoubtable enemy the garrison in Fæsulæ surrendered to Cyprian; and the citizens of Auximum, after performing the most astonishing prodigies of valour, followed their example.

Belisarius, after remunerating the toils and sufferings of his army with half the spoils of Auximum, marched thence to Ravenna, which he invested both by sea and land, in order to prevent the importation of provisions. The place was well fortified, and defended by a very numerous garrison, who fought immediately under the eye of their sovereign: but Belisarius commenced his attack, and carried on his military operations with such vigor and success, that the inhabitants were overwhelmed with consternation, and Vitiges dispatched ambassadors to conclude a peace with the emperor upon the best terms they could obtain. Justinian readily consented to withdraw his troops upon condition that the whole of Italy, except that beyond the Po, should be re-annexed to the empire, and that the royal treasures of the Ostrogoths should be equally divided between him and themselves. These conditions were accepted with every de-

demonstration

monstration of joy by Vitiges and his nobles, who were now reduced to a most pitiable condition: but Belisarius, provoked that he should be thus deprived of the glory of terminating the war, and leading Vitiges, as a captive, to Constantinople, positively refused to sign the treaty, and renewed the siege with unabated vigor and intrepidity.

The leading men among the Ostrogoths concluding, from his behaviour, that Belisarius intended to revolt from the emperor, and being equally weary of Vitiges and fearful of Justinian, agreed privately to declare the Roman general emperor of the west, and accordingly dispatched a messenger to tender their allegiance. Belisarius abhorred the very name of a traitor; but, in order to facilitate the grand object of his wishes, he pretended to accept of this offer, and, after acquainting his chief officers with all that had passed, he was admitted into the city as king of Italy. He behaved with great moderation toward the inhabitants, not permitting his troops to offer them the least violence; but he seized on the royal treasures, and secured the person of Vitiges, according to his first resolution. It is proper to remark, that the Roman army appeared so inconsiderable upon this occasion, that the Gothic women could not forbear spitting in their husband's faces, and branding them with the disgraceful epithet of cowards.

Upon the departure of Belisarius,* who was recalled by Justinian to assume the management of

* On Belisarius's return to Constantinople, with the king and royal treasures of the Ostrogoths, Justinian treated him with great respect, and conferred on him the dignity

of the war against Chosroes, the Ostrogoths, who resided beyond the Po, resolved, in a great assembly, to invest one of their own nation with the regal title. They accordingly chose Ildebald, at that time governor of Verona, a man of great experience in military affairs, and nephew to Theudis, king of the Visigoths. This prince immediately undertook the re-establishment of the Gothic affairs in Italy, and acted with such extraordinary prudence, that his army was soon augmented, and he was enabled to take the field against Vitalis, governor of Venetia, whom he defeated with great slaughter. After this battle, Ildebald subdued the whole province of Venetia; but, on his causing Uraia (to whom he was beholden for his crown) to be put to death, he incurred the hatred of all his subjects, and was soon taken off by assassination.

Eraric, a Rugian, was next elevated to the throne; but the Ostrogoths were so universally dissatisfied with his government, that he was soon deposed and murdered; and Totila, nephew to Ildebald, was chosen in his room.

Upon the accession of this prince, the Roman officers who commanded in Italy resolved to make an attempt upon Verona, the chief city of the Ostrogoths, and, upon the reduction of that place, march with their whole army against Totila, who was at the head of a small body in Picenum. This design, however, was totally frus-

nity of patrician; but, as he neither granted him a triumph, nor suffered the treasures he had taken to be exposed to public view, it seems highly probable that the emperor had entertained some jealousy respecting the late transactions in Italy.

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trated; for the Romans, after being gallantly repulsed at Verona, were defeated both by sea and land; several important fortresses in Tuscany and the adjacent provinces were successively reduced; even the city of Naples was taken and dismantled; and the victorious Ostrogoths advanced, by rapid marches, to the neighbourhood of Rome itself, which was now cut off from any communication with the neighbouring country.

The emperor, alarmed at the news of these proceedings, recalled Belisarius from Persia, and commanded him to march without delay to the assistance of the army in Italy. Belisarius accordingly departed for the west, and, having raised above four thousand men at his own expence, hastened to Ravenna, whence he sent several detachments against the cities of Æmilia. This attempt proving unsuccessful, the Romans threw themselves into Auximum, then besieged by the Goths; but, finding the provisions inadequate to the support of so numerous a garrison, they marched to Pisaurus, now Pesaro, which stood at a small distance, and was still possessed by their countrymen.

Belisarius, being chiefly concerned for the safety of Rome, entrusted the government of that city to Bessas, and appointed Barbation and Artasiris, persons of approved valour and experience, to command under him, strictly enjoining them to hazard no sallies in case the town should be besieged. He then wrote to Constantinople, representing his inability either to check the progress of the Ostrogoths or to relieve the besieged cities; and earnestly pressing for a reinforcement.

Meanwhile Totila, having reduced the cities of Firmum, Asculum, Auximum, and Spoletum, marched his victorious troops to Rome, which he invested on all sides, after defeating a body of Romans whom Barbation and Artasiris had imprudently persuaded to make a sally. The Ostrogoths had not long carried on their operations when a reinforcement arrived from Constantinople, and Belisarius hastened to the relief of Rome; but, he being disappointed of a farther supply, and the besieged having struggled for a long time with every calamity attendant upon famine, Totila was privately admitted into the city by some mutinous Isaurians. Upon the first alarm, Bessas and most of the other commanders took to flight, and those who remained took sanctuary in the churches. The Gothic soldiers were then permitted to remunerate themselves with plunder, but the citizens, excepting sixty who were killed at the entrance of Totila, were all spared. The Ostrogoths were extremely desirous of putting Rusticiana, the widow of Bœtius, to death, because she had excited the Romans to throw down the statues of Theodoric, but Totila generously took both her and all the Roman matrons under his own protection, thereby to secure them from the insolence of the soldiery.

Totila, having thus recovered the capital of Italy, in the year of the Christian æra 547, sent an embassy to Justinian, offering to respect him as a father, and to assist him upon any future occasion provided he chose to accept of his alliance; but threatening, at the same time, to revenge the rejection of this proposal, with all imaginable severity on the city and senate of

Rome.

Rome. Justinian replied, that Belisarius was fully empowered to manage all affairs of that nature at discretion—an answer which incensed Totila so highly, that he determined to put his threats in execution, and actually began to demolish the walls of Rome, but on the receipt of an expostulatory letter from Belisarius he laid aside his designs, and marched his army into Lucania, whither he sent the Roman senate, and all the other inhabitants, under a strong guard, not leaving an individual in the city, which he had spared on account of its magnificence and antiquity.

Totila had no sooner marched toward Ravenna than the Roman troops made themselves masters of Tarentum and Spoletum; and Belisarius, having undertaken to repair the fortifications of Rome, enjoyed the exquisite pleasure of reinstating the ancient inhabitants, who had been dispersed in various parts of Italy, in their houses and possessions.

Upon the first intelligence of this proceeding Totila returned to Rome, supposing that Belisarius would immediately retire to a place of superior strength; but finding himself deceived in this expectation, he formed an encampment at a small distance, and commenced an attack with incredible fury. However, after suffering three successive defeats from the resistless bravery of Belisarius and his troops, he abandoned the enterprise, and retired to the city of Tibur, whence he led his army to form the siege of Perugia.

Upon his departure from Tibur, John, who had hitherto kept possession of Otranto, marched into Campania, and, after defeating a numerous body of Ostrogoths, set at liberty the Roman

senators and their families. To revenge this action Totila quitted Perugia, and marched by a bye road into Apulia, where John then was; but, falling upon him unadvisedly in the night, the Romans escaped with the loss of no more than one hundred men, and retreated safely to Tarento.

About this time Antonia, the wife of Belisarius, prevailed on the emperor to recal her husband and employ him once more against the Persians, who had now gained some important advantages in the East. Belisarius, accordingly, quitted Italy with much less reputation than he had gained in his former expedition. And Totila, having made himself master of Rusciana, returned before Perugia, which, after an obstinate struggle, was added to his other conquests. Meanwhile the Franks, notwithstanding their solemn promises to remain neuter, and the many favors they had occasionally received both from the Ostrogoths and Romans, made an irruption into the province of Venetia, and seized it for themselves.

Totila, having received a powerful reinforcement from the Lombards, determined to march to Rome, and attempt once more the reduction of that famous city. Accordingly he invested it on all sides, and by reducing Pontus, cut off all communication both by sea and land; but Diogenes, an officer of great bravery and experience, who had been entrusted with the command of the garrison, prudently provided against this evil, by ordering corn to be sown within the walls; so that he might, in all probability, have held out till the arrival of succours from Constantinople, had not the place been, a second time,

time, betrayed by the Isaurians. A body of that nation, who had long been discontented on account of some arrears, entered into a private conference with the beseigers, and at a certain hour opened one of the gates, while the garrison, on a false alarm, hastened to the defence of another.

When the inhabitants perceived that the enemy was within their walls they issued, with the utmost precipitation, out of the opposite gate towards Centumcellæ, the only strong place held by the Romans in that neighbourhood; but great numbers of them, and of the soldiers who took the same route, were cut off in their retreat by an ambuscade of the enemy. Diogenes escaped with a slight wound; but Paul, a Cilician, whom Belisarius had nominated to command under him, retreated, with a body of cavalry, to Adrian's tomb, and possessed himself of the bridge leading to St. Peter's church. Here they defended themselves with incredible bravery against the enemy's whole army, till all their provisions were exhausted; and then resolved either to cut their way through the Ostrogoths or perish in the attempt. But, on Totila's generously offering them permission either to serve in his army or to return to Constantinople, they threw down their arms, and voluntarily enlisted beneath the banners of the conqueror.

Totila, having restored the senate to their rank and estates, repaired and embellished the city, and amused the public mind by an exhibition of Circensian games, dispatched ambassadors to Constantinople with proposals for peace; offering, upon the emperor's acknowledging him

sovereign of Italy, to assist him as a faithful ally against any other nation. Justinian, however, refused to grant the envoys an audience; and Totila was, consequently, obliged to pursue the war with redoubled vigour.

Whilst the warlike Ostrogoth was extending his conquests with surprising rapidity, and those who presumed to oppose his progress were punished in the most exemplary manner, Justinian appointed his nephew Germanus general over the army in Italy, and raised a numerous body of troops for the express purpose of effecting the expulsion of Totila; but the progress of Germanus was suddenly arrested by death; and the advanced state of the season retarded the operations of his successors.

Early in the ensuing spring John and Justin, who were now entrusted with the command of the Roman troops, set out on their march to Ravenna; but the Sclavi, having made an irruption into the Roman provinces, obliged them to weaken their army by sending out several detachments. However, they were soon informed that Narses would march with all possible expedition to their assistance at the head of a numerous body of forces.

While John and Justin were waiting the arrival of Narses in Dalmatia, Totila blocked up the city of Ancona by sea and land; and soon reduced it to extremity; but John, having put the flower of his army on board forty vessels, and being joined by Valerian, with a squadron of twelve ships, hastened to the relief of the place, and defeated the besiegers with great slaughter. At the same time Artabanes landed in Sicily, and recovered all the fortresses which had

had been recently garrisoned by the Ostrogoths in that island.

Discouraged by these losses, Totila again applied to the emperor, offering to renounce his pretensions to Sicily and Dalmatia, to pay an annual tribute for Italy, and to assist the Romans upon every emergency. But Justinian remained inflexible, and Totila renewed his warlike preparations with greater ardour than ever. The islands of Corsica and Sardinia were soon reduced, and the neighbouring cities began to dread a similar fate; but the approach of Narses, with absolute authority, and a formidable army, soon altered the aspect of affairs, and revived the drooping courage of the Romans.

Narses having devoted nine days to repose and refreshment in the city of Ravenna, marched toward Rome, and, on his arrival at the village Tagiria, dispatched a messenger to Totila, desiring him either to relinquish his pretensions to Italy, or to appoint a day for a general engagement. Totila replied, without hesitation, that his pretensions must be decided by the sword, and that, eight days after, he would engage the Roman forces. Narses suspecting that some secret design was to be executed within that space of time, made the necessary preparations for an immediate battle, and by that means eluded an overthrow, for Totila advanced the very next morning in battle array against him. Both armies fought for some time with incredible fury and resolution; but the Gothic cavalry being, after an obstinate resistance, thrown into confusion, and recoiling upon the foot, the enemy was put to flight with the loss of six thousand men. Totila, perceiving it impossible to re-

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trieve this misfortune, retreated precipitately with a few horsemen; but he was overtaken and slain by a commander of the Gepidæ named Asbades. This prince has been highly commended, by all the writers of his age, for his valour, temperance, and equity; and even his enemies have been compelled to speak with veneration of his humane behaviour to the vanquished. Whenever he reduced a city he took especial care that no insult should be offered to the softer sex, and is said to have punished one of his most valiant soldiers with death for abusing the daughter of a Roman in Calabria.

Such of the Ostrogoths as escaped the avenging sword of Narses crossed the Po, and, assembling at Ticinum, now Pavia, conferred the regal title on Teia, a man of approved prudence and bravery. This prince immediately exerted himself to recal his dismayed countrymen, who had taken refuge in the several forts beyond the Po; and to secure the royal treasures which his predecessor had left in Pavia. He also attempted to draw over the Franks to his assistance by some liberal promises; but this design was rendered abortive, and he had the mortification to hear of the reduction of Narnia, Spoletum, Perugia, and even Rome itself, by the Romans.

Incensed at the enemy, and despairing of maintaining their own footing in Italy, the Ostrogoths now resolved to take vengeance on the Romans wherever they could find them. Accordingly, the senators who had been confined, by Totila, to Campania, were all inhumanly murdered; three hundred children of the Roman citizens, who had been sent as hostages beyond the Po, were also doomed to death; and fifty Roman

Roman soldiers were literally cut to pieces in Calabria.

These barbarities did not, however, go unpunished; for, after some time had been spent in marches and military evolutions, the hostile armies came to a general engagement, which, after a most intrepid resistance, terminated in the death of Teia, and the defeat of his troops, who consented to lay down their arms on condition of being permitted either to retire peaceably with all their effects, or to retain their Italian possessions as subjects of the empire.

Thus ended the dominion of the Ostrogoths in Italy in the twenty-sixth year of Justinian's reign, and of the Christian æra 553, after they had reigned sixty-four years in that country, from Theodoric to Teia.

It is proper to remark that some commotions were afterward raised in Italy by the Ostrogoths, and the Franks, who, under pretence of assisting their neighbours, designed to seize on the country for themselves; but these were speedily crushed by the valour of Narses, and Italy was again re-united to the eastern empire.

LOMBARDS.

THE first credible account of this nation was given in 379, by Prosper Aquitanus, bishop of Rhegium. That prelate, in a chronicle of his own composition, asserts that the Lombards, leaving their original country, Scandinavia, in quest of new settlements, attacked and vanquished the Vandals in Scoringa. They afterward migrated into Mauringa, and thence into Gothland, where they first elected a king, and conferred the regal title on Agilmund, the son of their deceased chieftain Aion.

Lamissio, the successor of Agilmund, is said to have gained a signal victory over the Amazons and Bulgarians. Of his successors, Leta and Ildehoc, nothing satisfactory has been recorded, except that in the reign of the latter the Lombards took possession of Rugiland, which had been recently depopulated by the sword of Odoacer.

During the reign of Adoinus, a war was kindled between the Lombards and Gepidæ, and a general engagement took place, in which the latter were defeated with great slaughter. As the victory gained on this occasion was chiefly owing to Alboinus, the king's son, the principal men among the Lombards earnestly requested that he might be indulged, as a reward of his extraordinary gallantry, in dining at the royal table. Adoinus replied, he would readily grant this request, but that the ancient laws of his nation

nation forbade even the princes of the blood to receive such a mark of distinction, till they had publicly appeared in the armour of some foreign prince whom they had overthrown in battle. Hereupon the warlike prince, attended only by forty resolute men, repaired to the court of Turisund, king of the Gepidæ, to demand the armour of his son, who had been killed by Alboinus in the above-mentioned battle. Turisund, instead of offering any violence to the intrepid claimant, entertained him with the utmost hospitality, and granted his request, with which he returned in triumph, and was permitted to sit at table with his royal parent. The Lombards under this reign were masters of the champaign country bordering on the Danube, and many of them, by permission of Justinian, fixed their abode in Pannonia.

On the demise of Adoinus, the valiant Alboinus succeeded to the sovereignty, and gained some important advantages over the Gepidæ, whose king he slew with his own hand, and, according to the custom of savage warriors, caused his skull to be converted into a drinking cup. By this victory Alboinus gained such reputation, that his subjects were perfectly enraptured with his martial disposition; his valour and prowess became the favourite theme of Gothic bards; and even Narses solicited his assistance against the Ostrogoths in Italy. For their services on that occasion the Lombards received a profusion of rich presents; and continued faithful allies to the Romans so long as they remained in Pannonia.

About the year 568 the Lombards, with a numerous army of auxiliaries, took their route

toward

toward Italy, which they entered without opposition, and made themselves masters of several important cities; the inhabitants having retired precipitately to the neighbouring islands in the Adriatic. Alboinus having cantoned his troops in the adjacent villages, took up his winter quarters in Friuli, and erected that city and its territory into a duchy, conferring the title of duke on his own nephew Gisulphus.

Early in the ensuing spring Alboinus took the field; and successively reduced the cities of Monte Selce, Vicenza, Verona, and Trent, in each of which he placed a strong garrison, under the command of an officer whom he honoured with the ducal title; but these dukes were only governors of their respective cities, and bore that appellation no longer than the king thought proper to continue them in their command.

In their third campaign the Lombards became masters of Bresica, Bergamo, Lodi, Como, and the other towns of Liguria, quite to the Alps; the inhabitants either fleeing at their approach or surrendering without resistance. The citizens of Milan, indeed, made some efforts for the preservation of their liberty, but, after a short struggle, they submitted; and Alboinus was proclaimed king of Italy amidst the acclamations of his followers.

From Milan the conqueror marched to Paira, which, being well garrisoned, and furnished with an abundance of provisions, sustained a siege for upwards of three years; but at the expiration of that time it surrendered upon honourable conditions, and was, shortly after, chosen by Alboinus for the metropolis of his new kingdom.

Alboinus being now master of all that part of Italy which comprehended Venetia, Liguria, Umbria, Æmilia, and Etruria, resolved to establish the government and security of these provinces before he attempted to extend his conquests; but whilst he was making the necessary arrangements for this purpose, he was assassinated by command of his queen * Rosamund, whom he had incensed beyond forgiveness by commanding her to drink out of her father's skull, which was used as a drinking cup in a royal banquet at Verona.

To reward the execution of her revenge, Rosamund bestowed her hand on the assassin Helmichild; and promised to invest him with the sovereignty; but the Lombards were so violently exasperated at the loss of their beloved prince, that both herself and her new consort were compelled to flee to Ravenna, where they implored the protection of the exarch Longinus. Here Rosamund formed the design of attaching Longinus to her interest by the same means which had formerly prevailed with Helmichild, and accordingly presented the latter with a deleterious potion as he returned from bathing; but Helmichild, experiencing an extraordinary sensation on taking the first draught, compelled the treacherous queen to swallow the remainder, by which means she participated in his untimely fate.

Meanwhile the Lombards, having performed the funeral obsequies of their deceased sovereign, proceeded to the election of a new king, and,

* This princess was the daughter of Cunimund, king of the Gepidæ, whom Alboinus had killed with his own hand in battle.

after some consultation, fixed their choice on Clephis, a man of known valour and abilities. This prince undertook the re-building of Imola, which had been destroyed by Narses; reduced Rimini; and extended his conquests to the very gates of Rome; but the cruelty of his disposition tarnished the lustre of all his military atchievements, and eventually induced his own subjects to take him off by assassination.

Upon the demise of Clephis, the Lombards resolved to abolish the monarchical form of government, and accordingly lived under their dukes or commanders of cities for the space of ten years, during which time they committed many depredations in Gaul, and reduced several cities of importance in Italy. But the powerful confederacy which was formed against them in the time of the emperor Mauritius, induced them to restore the ancient regimen, and to unite their forces under the authority of an individual who might undertake the management of so dangerous a war.

A. D. 585. Pursuant to this resolution a general assembly was called, and the regal title confered on Autharis, the son of Clephis This prince had no sooner ascended the throne than he assumed the name of Flavius, and ordered it to be used, in imitation of the Roman emperors, by all his successors. He then obliged the dukes, who, for ten years, had ruled with absolute authority over their respective territories, to contribute a moiety of their revenues toward the maintenance of his royal dignity; and enacted various salutary laws against murder, adultery, theft, and other crimes, which, at that time, were frequently committed by his subjects.

Nor

Nor was Autharis only attentive to the government and welfare of his people; but, on the first intimation that Childeric, king of the Franks, was marching into his dominions, in violation of a recent treaty, he assembled his troops with incredible dispatch, and animated them so effectually by his exhortations and example, that the invaders were utterly overthrown, and pursued to the mountains with incredible slaughter. A second expedition was undertaken by the Franks to retrieve this signal loss, but victory again declared for Autharis, and their attempts were only productive of confusion and shame. Some time after the retreat of this enemy Autharis reduced the province of Samnium and the city of Benevento. He is also said to have projected the reduction of Rome, and the exarchate of Ravenna; but, previously to the accomplishment of this design, he was taken off by poison, after having worn the crown about six years. Autharis was the first Lombard king who embraced the Christian religion, and his example was followed by most of his subjects; but, as they were unfortunately instructed by Arian bishops, they continued long infested with that heresy, which occasioned many warm disputations between them and the orthodox bishops of the cities subject to their dominion.

A. D. 590.

Agilulf, duke of Turin, a person of extraordinary merit, was next elevated to the regal dignity. At the request of his queen Theudelinda, he embraced the Catholic faith, and induced many of his subjects to abjure their former errors. However, the commencement of his reign was disturbed by rebellion; and he found himself obliged to take up

arms against his own countrymen; for the dukes of Bergamo, and the island of St. Julian, revolted from their allegiance, and claimed an absolute authority in their respective districts; but these disturbances were at length quelled without much bloodshed; and a peace was concluded with the exarch of Ravenna, who had vainly attempted to recover Italy during the intestine commotions.

Notwithstanding the conclusion of this treaty, Callinicus, the treacherous exarch, taking advantage of some fresh disturbances that were raised by the dukes of Verona and Bergamo, fell unexpectedly upon the city of Parma, in which he found a considerable treasure, and took the king's daughter and her husband prisoners. Hereupon Agilulf resolved to pursue the war against the Romans with unremitting vigour, and engaged Chagan, king of the Avares, to make a powerful diversion in Thrace, while he carried on his military preparations in Italy. This design was immediately followed by the reduction of many Roman cities, and a vast effusion of blood both in Thrace and Italy; but Chagan was at length compelled to retire by a pestilence which raged in the army; and Agilulf hearing that the emperor had issued out orders for the restoration of his daughter, son-in-law, and treasures that had been taken at Pavia, agreed to grant the Romans a truce for six months, which was afterward prolonged to three years.

The swords of the Lombards had no sooner returned to their scabbards, and the inhabitants of Italy congratulated themselves on the return of peace, than Cacanus, king of the Hunns, made a sudden irruption into the dukedom of Friuli;

Friuli; made himself master of Forum Julii, the metropolis; ravaged the country with fire and sword; and carried all the inhabitants, who escaped death, into captivity. About the same time Joannes Lemigius, exarch of Ravenna, was murdered by the populace of that city on account of his tyrannical conduct; and Joannes Composinus, duke of Naples, resolved to shake off his allegiance to the emperor: but, on the arrival of Eleutherius from Constantinople, these disturbances were effectually quelled.

A.D. 615.

On the demise of Agilulf, which happened in 615, the Lombards bestowed the regal title on Adaluald; but, as that prince was a minor, he suffered the state to be governed by his mother Theudelinda, under whom the church began to flourish, and the Lombards to taste the sweets of uninterrupted peace. In the eighth year of this reign, however, Eusebius, who was sent from Constantinople to conclude a permanent peace with the Lombards, gained the confidence of the young king, and wrought so artfully upon his passions, by pretending to unravel a secret conspiracy, that twelve of the Lombard nobles were put to death by the royal command;—an outrage which occasioned the immediate deposition of Adaluald and Theudelinda, the former of whom is supposed to have been taken off by poison, and the latter soon fell a victim to unconquerable grief.

Ariovald, duke of Turin, who had espoused the daughter of the deposed king, was next placed on the throne; and, exclusive of some disturbances which happened previously to the death of Adaluald, his reign was marked by public

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tranquillity both at home and abroad. He is said to have confined his queen to the castle of Amellum on the false accusation of one of his nobles, who had vainly endeavoured to obtain the gratification of an unlawful passion; but, after some time, the cause being tried by single combat, according to the custom of the northern nations, the accuser was convicted of falsehood, and the virtuous princess was restored to her former dignity.

A. D. 636. Shortly after this incident Ariovald died; and, as he left no successor, Rotharis, duke of Brescia, was elected to the sovereignty. This person, exclusive of his theological tenets, was, in every respect, worthy of that dignity, and has been equally commended, by the writers of his own age, for his valour, equity, and moderation. He undertook, in imitation of the Romans, the promulgation of written laws; augmented his dominions by the reduction of all the cities in Venetia, which had been hitherto held by the Romans; and, after a glorious reign of sixteen years, sunk to the tomb in full possession of his people's love.

Rodoald, the son and successor of Rotharis, appears to have been a prince of a pacific disposition, for none of his transactions have been recorded in history. He is said to have been infected with the heresy of Arius, and to have indulged himself in illicit amours, for one of which he was assassinated.

Aripert was next proclaimed king of the Lombards in a general assembly; but none of his actions have been transmitted to posterity, except his rebuilding the oratory of St. Saviour in Pavia.

via. He is said to have reigned nine years, and to have divided the kingdom between his two sons, Partharit and Gundebert.

This division of the regal authority soon produced the most fatal consequences; for Partharit, having roused his brother's indignation respecting the seat of royal residence, Gundebert resolved to seize on the whole kingdom, and accordingly sent Garibald, duke of Turin, as his ambassador to Grimoald, duke of Benevento, inviting him to his assistance, and promising to give him his sister in marriage if he succeeded in the undertaking: but Garibald, instead of executing his commission with fidelity, exhorted the Duke of Benevento to expel both the brothers, and seize on the kingdom for himself. Hereupon Grimoald assembled a numerous army, and marched toward Pavia, where he was persuaded, by the treacherous Garibald, to murder Gundebert in his own palace; to seize on the royal treasures; and to cause himself to be proclaimed king of the Lombards.

Upon the first intelligence of this disaster, Partharit abandoned his capital, and fled to the court of Chagan, king of the Avares, while his queen Rodolind, and his infant son Cunipert, were left at the mercy of Grimoald, by whom they were sent prisoners to the city of Benevento.

A.D. 662.

Notwithstanding the readiness with which the Lombards submitted to their invaders, Grimoald could not suppose himself secure, while his competitor resided at the court of Chagan. He, therefore, sent an embassy to that prince, complaining of the protection he had afforded Partharit, and threatening immediate war unless the cause of discontent

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were immediately removed. The king of the Avares was extremely reluctant to abandon his unhappy guest to the malice of an enemy; but, after some consideration, motives of policy triumphed over humanity, and an order was issued out for Partharit to retire to some other country. In this distressing exigence, the royal exile resolved to throw himself upon the generosity of his rival, and accordingly dispatched one of his trusty friends to obtain leave for him to reside, as a private citizen, at Pavia. Grimoald readily acceded to this proposal, and ordered a residence to be prepared altogether suitable for the quality of his petitioner; but the demonstrations of joy which marked Partharit's entry, and the avidity with which the nobles flocked to visit him, soon rekindled the flame of jealousy in Grimoald's bosom, and finally compelled him to issue out private orders for the unfortunate prince's assassination. This act of barbarity, however, was prevented by the vigilance of one of the Lombards, and Partharit was enabled to escape, first to Hasta, and afterward into Gaul.

Clotair III. king of the Franks, listened with compassion to the sorrowful tale of Partharit, and readily undertook to replace him on the throne; but, though this project was immediately put in execution, the expedition was rendered abortive, and Grimoald still triumphed in his new possessions. Some time after the defeat of the Franks, a more redoubtable enemy appeared in the person of Constans, who, at the head of a formidable army, landed at Tarentum, and thence proceeded to Benevento, marking his progress with slaughter and desolation: however, after some obstinate conflicts, Constans

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was obliged to retire with considerable loss; and the Lombards improved their recent victory by the reduction of several places of importance. Grimoald, after these successes, devoted his time chiefly to the emendation of the laws; the regulations of government; and the fulfilment of other royal duties: but his reign was at length suddenly * terminated, after he had governed the Lombards for the space of nine years. He appears to have been a prince of extraordinary parts, and the general equity of his conduct endeared his administration to the subjects of his conquest. He had been educated in the principles of Arius, but he renounced the doctrines of that heresiarch, after his elevation to the throne of the Lombards; and his example operated so powerfully, that Arianism was gradually abjured by the generality of the nation.

Garibald, though considerably younger than his brother Romuald, was appointed by the late prince to succeed to the crown; but his dignity was of short duration; for Partharit was, almost immediately, recalled and reinstated in his lawful possessions; while Garibald retired to his brother in Benevento. Partharit, having governed in perfect tranquillity for eight years, took his son, Cunipert, for his colleague in the kingdom, and reigned with him ten years more; at the expiration of which time he died, universally lamented by his faithful Lombards.

Upon the demise of this prince, Alachis, duke of Trent, threw off his allegiance, and chased

* He had been let blood in one of his arms; and as he was, nine days after, bending a bow, the vein burst, and, all means for closing it proving ineffectual, he bled to death.

Cunipert,

Cunipert, the son of Partharit, from the throne: however, he did not long enjoy the fruits of his treachery, for the principal men among the Lombards undertook to recal their lawful sovereign, and an engagement ensued, which, after an obstinate resistance, terminated in the death of Alachis, and the total defeat of his partisans. After this victory, Cunipert built a magnificent monastery in honour of St. George, and swayed the sceptre in undisturbed tranquillity till the year 703, when his death occasioned an universal lamentation among a nation who had ever admired his qualifications, and reverenced his extraordinary piety.

A. D. 703. The government next devolved upon Luitbert, son of the deceased monarch; but, as he was a minor under the tutelage of Asprand, a person of great distinction, Ragumbert, duke of Turin, resolved to embrace so favourable an opportunity of gratifying his ambition; and accordingly caused himself to be proclaimed king of the Lombards, after having defeated Asprand in a pitched battle: however, his career was soon terminated by death, and the crown descended to his son Aripert, who caused the lawful heir to be stifled in a bath, and exercised the most shocking cruelties on the family of Asprand, who had himself escaped destruction by a precipitate flight. At the expiration of nine years, however, Asprand returned into Italy, and a bloody engagement ensued, which terminated in the usurper's destruction; for, his forces being totally routed, he abandoned Pavia in the utmost confusion, and was drowned in attempting to ford the river Tesino. The conqueror was then placed on the throne

throne by the unanimous consent of the people, but he died about three months after his accession.

Luitprand, the son and successor of Asprand, had scarcely assumed the insignia of royalty, before two conspiracies were formed against his life; but these were rendered abortive by the courage and foresight of the king, and the very men who had engaged to embrue their hands in his blood were afterward converted into sincere friends and faithful servants. Having taken suitable precautions for his own safety, Luitprand strengthened his interest by marrying the daughter of the duke of Boioarii, and applied himself so zealously to the promulgation of a new code of laws, that he has been accounted the chief legislator of the Lombards, next to Rotharis. However, ambition appears to have been his darling passion; for, while the tranquillity of Italy was disturbed by an edict of Leo Isauricus, relative to the destruction of images in the church, Luitprand suddenly led his forces against Ravenna; and, having carried it by storm, gave it up to be plundered by his soldiers. The reduction of this important place, together with the surrender of several other cities in the exarchate, greatly alarmed Gregory II. bishop of Rome, who immediately wrote to Ursus, duke of Venice, and used such pressing arguments on behalf of the distressed exarch, that the Venetians readily consented to oppose the Lombards with all the forces of their republic; and Ravenna was, soon after, recovered, while Luitprand was triumphing in the success of his projects at Pavia.

A. D. 711.

Gregory,

Gregory, having contributed so essentially toward the recovery of Ravenna, persuaded himself that the emperor would now, from motives of gratitude, attend to his remonstrances, and consent to revoke the unpopular edict against the worship of images; but Leo, knowing that the pope had been rather influenced by motives of interest, than any regard for the empire, expressed the utmost resentment at the delay of his commands, and, after some time, commanded the exarch to seize on the pontiff, and send him in chains to Constantinople: but this design was frustrated by the interposition of Luitprand, who justly supposed that, by assisting sometimes one and sometimes the other, he might effectually weaken both parties. Leo, however, still persisted in his resolution, and gave the exarch such instructions for putting his edict in execution, that all Italy was convulsed by feuds and rebellions; the populace of Ravenna committed the most daring outrages; and the exarch himself was eventually murdered; while all the cities of Pentapolis and of Romagna revolted from the imperial authority, and tendered their allegiance to the king of the Lombards, who took especial care to improve the discontent of the people to his own advantage.

Eutychius, the new exarch, knowing it would be impossible to reduce the rebellious Romans, while they were supported by the king of the Lombards, employed all his arts to bring over that prince to the imperial party; and, at length, persuaded him to attempt, in concert with Leo's forces, the reduction of Rome However, Gregory found means to soften the royal Lombard

so effectually, that he publicly implored pardon for entering into an alliance against him; divested himself of his girdle, mantle, gauntlet, sword, and crown, in the church of St. Peter, to express his humiliation; and, finally, effected a reconciliation between the pontiff and the exarch.

On the demise of Leo, his son, Constantine Copronymus, renewed the edict against images, and even forbad the invocation of saints; by which means Italy was again involved in confusion, and the Romans were confirmed in their resolution of separating entirely from the empire.

Zachary, who had now succeeded to the papal chair, dispatched a solemn embassy to Luitprand, entreating him to restore some cities which Gregory had surrendered upon his raising the siege of Rome. This request was readily granted, and Luitprand, on a future occasion, gave a more convincing proof of his respect to the pontiff, by abandoning a project which he had formed for the augmentation of his dominions. Shortly after these transactions, Luitprand died, in the thirty-second year of his reign; leaving behind him the character of an equitable and munificent prince, who always treated his subjects as his own children, and whose only faults resulted from an insatiate desire of conquest.

Luitprand was succeeded by his grandson Hildebrand; but the Lombards, finding his abilities inadequate to the cares of government, deposed him, after an inglorious reign of seven months, and bestowed the sovereignty

A. D. 743.

reignty on Rachis, duke of Friuli, who was universally esteemed for the suavity of his disposition and the sanctity of his manners. This prince commenced his reign with confirming the treaty that had been recently concluded with the Romans, and publishing a new code of laws. After some time, he began to thirst after an aggrandisement of power, and accordingly led a numerous army against the Roman dukedom; but, while he was employed in forming the siege of Perugia, Zachary paid him a visit, and wrought so effectually upon his passions, that he not only abandoned all his warlike projects, but, in the course of the next year, renounced his kingdom, and, assuming the habit of St. Benedict, retired to the monastery of Monte Cassino, where he ended his days, and where, after his decease, he was canonized as a saint.

A. D. 751. Upon the resignation of Rachis, the Lombards assembled, and bestowed the crown on his brother, Astulphus, a man equally admired for his courage in action and his prudence in council. He concluded a peace with Stephen II. bishop of Rome, in order to divert that pontiff from opposing the design he had upon the exarchate, which he reduced, after an obstinate resistance, and eventually changed into a dukedom. He then required the Romans to acknowledge him for their sovereign, alleging, in justification of his demand, that the exarchate, which he held by right of conquest, gave him the same power which the emperor had formerly possessed over that part of Italy and the Roman dukedom. At the same time he advanced, with his victorious troops, to the

vicinage

vicinage of Rome, and proclaimed his intention of plundering that august city, unless the inhabitants consented to acknowledge him, by paying an annual tribute.

The pope, alarmed at these proceedings, endeavoured to divert the enemy from his purpose by arguments, entreaties, and sumptuous presents; but these were all rejected with contempt, and an application to the emperor proved equally unsuccessful. At length, however, Stephen repaired in person to the court of France, and prevailed on Pepin to espouse his cause by making war upon the Lombards. Hereupon Pepin entered Italy at the head of a numerous army, and invested it so closely on every side, that Astulphus was overwhelmed with consternation, and willingly consented to restore the exarchate, together with Pentapolis, and all the places he had seized in the Roman dukedom, to the pope; and delivered forty hostages to Pepin for the performance of these articles. But an immediate violation of this treaty roused the resentment of Stephen, and induced him once more to recur to his powerful protector, who immediately recrossed the Alps, and besieged Astulphus so closely in his metropolis, that he was compelled to surrender the exarchate and the other countries, according to his former promise, in order to obtain a cessation of hostilities. His warlike disposition, however, prompted him to make some further efforts for the reduction of Ravenna; but his ambitious projects were suddenly terminated by accidental death.

Upon the demise of this prince, Desiderius, duke of Tuscany, assumed the regal title, and contrived to fix the pope A. D. 756.

in his interest. He also endeavoured to strengthen himself by marrying his two daughters to Charles and Carloman, who had succeeded Pepin on the throne of France; but this alliance proved of short continuance; and a dispute with Adrian, who had now succeeded to the pontificate, involved the king in a serious embarrassment; for, whilst his troops were busied in ravaging Pentapolis, and Rome itself was threatened with destruction, Charlemagne crossed over into Italy, and attacked the Lombards with such irresistible fury, that they fled before him in the utmost consternation, and Desiderius himself thought proper to take refuge in Pavia.

Charlemagne, hearing that the king had retired to his metropolis, ordered his uncle, Bernard, to besiege that city with the utmost vigour, while himself, with a select body of troops, should invest Verona, and pay a visit to Rome, in order to celebrate the feast of Easter. Verona was reduced, after an obstinate resistance, and the conqueror was received at Rome with every demonstration of honour, gratitude, and esteem. A procession of judges and magistrates met him at a considerable distance from their city; a choir of beautiful children, bearing branches of palm and olive in their hands, chanted his great achievements; the pope received him with a paternal embrace, and the air re-echoed with shouts of "Blessed is he that cometh in the name of the Lord."

A. D. 774. After a residence of eight days in Rome, during which time he had gratified his own curiosity, and confirmed an ancient donation to the pope, Charlemagne returned to the

the camp before Pavia, and, finding it impossible to effect his design by force, turned the siege into a blockade. This measure was crowned with success; for, a dreadful pestilence beginning to rage within the walls, and the inhabitants being reduced to the most pitiable extremities, Desiderius was compelled, after a long and intrepid resistance, to surrender the city to the royal besieger, who sent him and his unfortunate family prisoners to France, and abolished the kingdom of the Lombards in Italy, after they had possessed that country for the space of two hundred and six years.

TURKS, TARTARS, AND MOGULS,

From the earliest Records to the Birth of Jenghiz Khan.

THE Tartars are said, by most historians, to have been anciently called Tatars from their great ancestor Tatar Khân; but their own writers deduce their origin from Turk, the eldest son of Japhet, and therefore suppose their extraction more noble than that of the neighbouring people, whom they consider as descended from the younger branches of their progenitor's family. In consequence of this opinion they assert that they originally bore the appellation of Turks, and were distinguished by that name till the time of Jenghiz Khân, when it was gradually disused, and finally changed to that of Tartars by their neighbours, though they have always denominated themselves Turks, and still assert that no other nation has the least title to that appellation. The Moguls received their name from Mogul, or Mung'l, brother to Tatar Khan; so that they, as well as the Tartars, were descended from the family of Japhet; and, though they founded two distinct empires in the east, these were eventually united, and became a terror to all the surrounding nations.

The government of the ancient Tartars was, in all probability, the same with that of the Scythians; for it appears from Herodotus, that the two principal tribes of the Scythians lived under

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kings, and had a great influence upon all the other tribes; and the Tartar historians inform us, that Alanza Khan had twin sons, Tatar and Mogul, between whom he divided his dominions. The royal families founded by these two Khans, according to the same writer, governed the ancient Turks, Tartars, and Moguls, for several generations, and, at length, formed a powerful and extensive empire.

Their religion appears to have been the grossest idolatry. Zamolxis, Hercules, and other imaginary deities, were regarded with profound veneration, and they are said to have carried about with them, in covered waggons, those small images which were regarded as objects of adoration among the ancient Germans.

Their language, taken in its most extensive acceptation, must have been divided into a great variety of dialects; for Herodotus asserts, that the part of Tartary lying between the country of the Argippeans and Borysthenes was inhabited by people who spoke seven different languages, and that the Argippeans had also another peculiar to themselves. That there was a great affinity between the ancient Turkish, Tartarian, and Gothic languages, has been ably demonstrated by M. Strahlenberg, and that all these were deducible from the Hebrew, Chaldee, and Arabic tongues, has been rendered highly probable by the same author. Whether the ancient Tartars had any alphabetic characters among them, has occasioned much controversy among the learned: however, Franciscus Foris Otrokocsi has argued with much reason on the affirmative side of the question; and some manuscripts written in the old Hunno-Scythian

Scythian character are said to be still preserved among the ancient Scythians of Transylvania. It may also be inferred, that the Tartars had a symbolic or hieroglyphic character among them, from the concurring testimonies of Herodotus and Clemens Alexandrinus, and from some inscriptions of that nature found near the source of the river Irbyth.

With respect to the general character and manners of this people, we shall only observe, in the elegant language of Sir William Jones, "* They were professed hunters or fishermen, "dwelling, on that account, in forests, or near "great rivers, under huts or rude tents, or in "waggons drawn by their cattle from station "to station: they were dexterous archers, excel-"lent horsemen, and bold combatants, appear-"ing often to flee in disorder, for the sake of "renewing an attack with advantage; drink-"ing the milk of mares, and eating the flesh of "colts; thus, in many respects, resembling the "old Arabs, but in nothing less than in a taste "for poetry, and the improvement of their lan-"guage."

Turk, according to the oriental writers, was a man of superior genius and qualifications, who governed the family of Japhet for many years, with great justice and moderation; taught his subjects to erect that sort of huts called, by the Persians, khargiah; and formed a code of salutary laws for the use of his descendants.

Taunak, who succeeded his father Turk in the government, became a very opulent and ingenious prince, who discovered the use of salt,

* Vide Asiatic Researches, Vol. II. page 40.

and many other inventions highly advantageous to society. Abu'l Ghazi Bahadur Khan makes him contemporary with Caiumeras, the first Persian king of the Peishdadian dynasty, and affirms that he lived two hundred and forty years.

Jelza Khan was next invested with the sovereignty, which he retained many years; but none of his transactions have been recorded either by the Persian or Tartarian historians.

Dibbakui Khan succeeded his father Jelza, and, after a long reign, disposed of the succession to his son, Kajuk Khan, who lived to a very advanced age, and enjoyed great general prosperity.

Alanza Khan is described as a voluptuous and effeminate prince, who devoted the whole of his time to sensual gratifications; debauched and enervated the minds of his subjects; and, at length, fixed them in the practice of idolatry. Previously to his decease, he abandoned all the cares of government, and divided his kingdom between his twin sons, Tatar and Mogul, who, being thus rendered independent of each other, established two potent empires, which are said to have subsisted for several generations.

Tatar Khân, from whom the Tartars are commonly supposed to have derived their name, governed his subjects many years in tranquillity, and died at a venerable age; but all the occurrences of his reign have been, long since, buried in oblivion.

On the demise of this prince, his son Buka Khân was invested with the regal title, and the throne was, afterward, filled by Ettala, Attaisir, Ordu, and Baydu Khân: but, as nothing satisfac-

crystal streamlets, abounding with a rich variety of fruits, and inclosed on all sides by such lofty mountains as promised them security from any future invasion. Here, therefore, they fixed their new habitations; and here their descendants are said to have lived for upwards of four hundred years. But, their numbers rendering a migration expedient, they resolved to return to the ancient seat of their progenitors. This step, however, for some time, appeared impracticable, as the narrow path that had conducted Kajan and Nagos into the country had been long destroyed; but, having at length discovered that one of their boundaries was not very thick in a certain place, and also that it consisted entirely of iron ore, they set fire * to a layer of wood and another of charcoal, and, by the application of seventy pair of leathern bellows, melted the mountain in such a manner that an opening was made large enough for a loaded camel to pass; and through this passage the people marched out with inexpressible joy.

At this time the Moguls are said to have been governed by a prince of the posterity of Kajan, called Bertegena Khân. This personage immediately acquainted the neighbouring tribes with the sally his people had made out of Irgana Kon, and persuaded many of them to put themselves under his government. He then marched

* This tale, notwithstanding its absurd appearance, is certainly founded upon some real event; for the anniversary of it is still observed in the empire of the Moguls. They make, upon that day, a piece of iron red hot; then the Khân strikes it with a hammer; the officers of distinction do the like, and last of all, the common people of every tribe.

against

against a tribe of the Tartars, who had made formidable preparations to oppose him, and gave them an entire overthrow, sparing none but the young people, whom he divided among his own subjects. This decisive victory, which happened four hundred and fifty years after the excision of the Moguls by Siuntz Khân, had such an effect on the other Tartarian tribes, that, notwithstanding their numbers were still superior to the Moguls, they resolved to elude the vengeance of the conqueror by voluntary submissions.

After the decease of Bertezena Khân the Moguls were successively governed by eighteen princes; but as scarcely any thing occurs respecting them, except their names and accessions, we shall pass over the uninteresting catalogue in silence, only observing that the last of them, Jessugi Khân, was the father of the celebrated Jenghiz Khân, with whose reign the proper historical period of the Tartars commences, as that of the Romans does with Romulus, and that of the Arabs with Mahomet.

satisfactory has been recorded respecting any of their reigns, we shall only observe that Siuntz Khân, the successor of Baydu, entered into an alliance with the Khân of the Kergis, and made war upon his contemporary Il Khân, over whom he obtained a victory which put a period to the Mogul empire.

Mogul, or Mung'l Khân, from whom the Moguls received their denomination, is said to have been a prince of a very melancholy disposition, from which circumstance he deduced his name, *Mung*, in the Tartarian language, signifying *melancholy*. He enjoyed the government for several years; and, at his death, left four sons, from the eldest of whom descended the famous Jenghiz Khân.

Kara Khân was next invested with the regal dignity, and is represented as a very powerful prince. He is said to have banished the true religion out of his kingdom, and to have substituted idolatry in its place; but his son Ogus still worshipped the true god; divorced two of his wives on account of their irreligious practices; and married a third, who had embraced his own faith. Hereupon Kara Khân resolved to take him off by assassination: but Ogus, receiving intelligence of his danger, immediately assembled an army, by whom his idolatrous father was overthrown, and himself raised to the sovereignty.

Ogus Khân had no sooner ascended the throne than he issued out an edict for the reformation of religious worship. He also augmented his dominions by the reduction of Iran, Khorassan, Media, and Armenia, and rendered himself so famous by his justice, bravery, and munificence,

that

that his name is still held in the highest veneration over a great part of the East; and the Othman Turks, so called in contradistinction to the Tartarian tribes, settled in Great and Little Tartary, pretend that the Othman family is lineally descended from this hero of antiquity.

Kiun Khân, the successor of Ogus, divided his father's extensive dominions among his six brothers and their sons. As each of these had four legitimate and four illegitimate sons, Kiun Khân's dominions were greatly dismembered, and assumed a very different form. Such is the account given us by Abu'l Ghazi Bahadur Khân; but Mirkhond, the Persian historian, affirms that the division of the nation into tribes, which this seems to allude to, happened during the reign of Ogus Khân.

On the demise of Kiun Khân the state was successively governed by Ai, Juldus, Mengli, Tingis, and I'l Khân; but nothing satisfactory has been related concerning any of them, except the last, who was overthrown in battle, and stripped of his dominions by Siuntz Khân.

Notwithstanding the dreadful massacre, and the destruction of the Mogul empire which attended this defeat, two branches of Il Khân's family, viz. his son Kajan and his nephew Nagos, found means to escape with their wives, and retired into the mountains with all the cattle that had been left by the victorious Tartars. After travelling for a considerable time, they ascended an exceeding high mountain by a narrow and dangerous path; and, on their gaining the summit, beheld a delightful tract of country, interspersed with charming meadows and crystal

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CHINESE.

From their Origin, to the Commencement of the first Dynasty called Hya.

THE Chinese, like the Egyptians, and many other nations, assume to themselves too high an antiquity, as fixing the reign of their first emperor, Fo-hi, near three thousand years before the commencement of the Christian æra, whereas neither Homer nor Herodotus has intimated that they ever heard of such a people; nor do any of the Persian historians take the least notice of the Chinese, as a nation, before the conquests of Alexander the Great, and the declension of the Persian empire. Their origin has been long a subject of dispute among the learned; but Sir William Jones has rendered it highly probable, from a comparative view of several circumstances, that the Chinese and Hindoos were anciently the same people, and that the existing differences between the nations may be justly ascribed to the care with which the Hindoos have preserved their old language, ritual and family alliances, while the Chinese have accepted of a new religion, and, by a mixture of Tartarian blood, from the time of their first establishment, have at length formed a race distinct in appearance both from the Hindoos and * the Tartars.

Of the form of government anciently prevail-

* Vide Asiatic Researches, Vol. II. page 379.

ing

ing in China nothing material has been recorded either by the Greek or Roman writers. However, the Chinese historians inform us that it was monarchical, and have given a long series of their emperors from Fo-hi to the present time. The emperor of China, at the present day, is vested with absolute authority, and the veneration he receives from his subjects falls but little short of adoration. Even his nearest relatives are obliged to kneel in his presence; and the least of his commands are as implicitly obeyed as if they came down from heaven.

With respect to their system of faith or divine worship, many authors are inclined to suppose that the first planters of China inspired their children with proper sentiments of the Supreme Being. Sir William Jones, however, justly observes, that "the importation of a new religion "into the country, about the first century of our "æra, naturally suggests the idea that the ancient system had been found inadequate to "the purpose of restraining the populace from "those offences against conscience and virtue "which the civil power could not punish. Of "the religious opinions entertained by Confucius and his followers (says the same ingenious gentleman) we may glean a general "notion from the fragments of their works "translated by Couplet. They professed a firm "belief in the Supreme God, and demonstrated "his existence and his providence from the exquisite beauty of the celestial bodies, and the "wonderful order of nature in the whole fabric "of the visible world. From this belief they "deduced a system of ethics which Confucius "himself has summed up in a few words at the

 close

" close of his book entitled Lun Yu.—" He, " says the philosopher, who will be fully per- " suaded that the Lord of Heaven governs the " universe, who shall in all things chuse mode- " ration, who shall perfectly know his own " species, and so act among them that his life " and manners may conform to his knowledge " of God and man, may be truly said to dis- " charge all the duties of a sage, and to be far " exalted above the common herd of the human* " race." Such a religion, however, could never have been general; and it appears from credible authority that the Chinese, had an ancient system of superstitious ceremonies, which bore a strict resemblance to some parts of the old Indian worship. They believed in the agency of tutelary spirits who presided over kingdoms, provinces, and cities, and particularly over fire, the most brilliant of the elements. They also seem to have addressed their vows and homage to the visible material heaven, or at least to a celestial virtue inseparable from heaven itself.

The Chinese, according to their own historians, were, even from the most remote antiquity, superior to the rest of mankind in wisdom and ingenuity. Their first princes are said to have invented every art that tended to civilize or improve the mind of man; and their merchants are described as being better versed in the arts of commerce, navigation, &c. than any other nation: but the fallacy of these pretences has been clearly demonstrated, not only from their general ignorance when first visited by the Jesuits, but also from the fragments of their own classical books, and from the figure they, at

* Vide Asiatic Researches, Vol. II. page 376.

present, make in the republic of letters. They appear, however, to have been greatly addicted to commerce, and to have exhibited, on most occasions, a mild, humane, and modest disposition, though they have sedulously avoided intermixing with foreigners, and have never suffered any considerable colonies from other nations to settle among them.

Fo-hi,* the celebrated founder of the Chinese empire, was raised to the throne on account of his superior merit, and honoured with the epithet of *Tyen-tse*, or *the Son of Heaven*, to denote that he was more favoured by the Supreme Being than the rest of mankind. He is described as an equitable prince, a famous legislator, and a profound mathematician. He is also said to have instituted marriage; to have obliged the men and women to wear different habits; to have bred, in a park, six sorts of domestic animals for religious sacrifices; to have invented eight *qua* or symbols, consisting of three lines each, which differently combined make sixty-four, and serve for expressing any occurrence; and to have chosen a dragon, or dragon horse, to be his assistant—whence the figure of a dragon was always borne on the imperial banners. He established a prime minister; divided the government of his empire among four mandarins; and died, after a very long reign, universally regretted by his subjects.

Shin-nong, the successor of Fo-hi, received

* The Chinese writers affirm that, his mother, walking upon the brink of a lake in the province of Shen-si, saw a large print of a man's foot upon the sand; and, being surrounded by a rainbow, she became impregnated, and, in due time, was delivered of Fo-hi.

his name, which implies a *celestial husbandman*, from the circumstance of his inventing several agricultural implements, and teaching his subjects to sow five different sorts of grain. He also discovered the qualities of various medicinal plants; appointed public markets; and applied himself with unremitting assiduity to the augmentation of commerce. He cultivated, with his own hands, the field which furnished him with corn and fruit for some of his religious sacrifices; and died, at an advanced age, at Chahyang, in the province of Hu-quang.

Whang-ti is said to have exhibited a sweet and engaging disposition in his youth, and an uncommon depth of judgment and sagacity in his maturer years. He succeeded Yu-wang, of whom nothing satisfactory is recorded, and greatly extended the limits of his empire. He also created six Ko-lau or prime ministers, of whom the first was appointed his mandarin historiographer; the second was entrusted with the composition of the Kya-tse,* or cycle of sixty years, which the Chinese, at present, call the Lo-she-wha-kya, or construction of sixty conversions; the third received orders to form a sphere and kalendar; the fourth undertook to regulate numbers and measures; the fifth had the care of improving music; and the sixth was commanded to make twelve copper bells in order to represent the twelve months of the year.

* This cycle had on one side ten characters, named Tyen-kan, and on the other twelve, called Tichi. The former had the denomination of the ten roots; and the latter that of the twelve branches. Every year was marked by one of each sort, which were so combined that the same two signs never came in conjunction till the cycle was expired.

Whang-ti

Whang-ti likewise found out the art of dying; caused bridges to be built over rivers, and coffins to be made for the dead; erected a magnificent edifice for the celebration of divine worship; and communicated to his subjects the art of making waggons, chariots, arms, nets, earthen ware, and musical instruments. He is said to have swayed the sceptre near an hundred years, and to have died in the fortieth year of the second cycle.

The son of Whang-ti having been, from his infancy, a zealous imitator of the virtues of the first founder of the empire, was next invested with the supreme dignity, and received the appellation of Shau-hau or *young Fo-hi.* This prince increased the pomp of the religious sacrifices by accompanying them with concerts of music. He also improved his dominions by clearing the channels of rivers and levelling rugged roads; and is said to have taken the hint from the appearance of the * fong whang, to distinguish his officers by the figures of various birds which they afterward wore on their clothes. The greatest part of Shau-hau's reign was passed in tranquillity; but the latter part of it was disturbed by nine chu-hew or feudatory princes, who disturbed the order of the sacrifices, alarmed the populace with various magical delusions, and attempted to overturn the system of government. Shau-hau died during these troubles, in the eighty-fourth year of his reign,

* This extraordinary bird, resembling the phœnix, is said to have made its appearance at the accession of Shau-hau, and occasioned universal rejoicings in the empire; as the Chinese affirm that it never visits their country but when the throne is filled by a virtuous prince.

and

and was buried at Kyo-few, in the province of Shan-tong.

Chwen-hyo next ascended the imperial throne; and annexed the priesthood to the crown, in order to correct some abuses which had recently crept into the celebration of divine worship. He also extirpated the race of the nine rebellious princes, who had disturbed the peace of the empire; and invented an astronomical instrument to give a more adequate idea of the celestial bodies. He is likewise said to have made some considerable regulations in the kalendar, and to have appointed certain mandarins to preside over the mines, forests, and rivers, in his dominions. He enjoyed the imperial dignity about twenty-eight years, and was interred, amidst universal lamentations, at Pu-yang.

Tiko, who was next invested with the government, has been highly extolled by the Chinese historians as a prince of exemplary piety, sound judgment, and great munificence. His brothers and nephews he created sovereign princes in the province of Se-chwen, and died in the seventieth year of his reign.

Chi succeeded his father in the empire; but as he devoted his time entirely to voluptuousness and debauchery, he was deposed, after an inglorious reign of eight years, and his brother, Yau, was placed on the vacant throne.

Yau is described as the most famous legislator of the Chinese, and the model of their best emperors. By the assistance of his mathematicians, he regulated the twelve lunar months, and re-established the intercalated ones, which returned seven times in nineteen years. He is said to have erected six supreme tribunals which still subsist;

subsist; and to have taken as his colleague a person of the name of Shun, who, though of mean extraction, was justly entitled to the highest dignities on account of his justice, equanimity, and other excellent virtues. Yau lived in perfect tranquillity with his new associate for the space of twenty-eight years, and died at a very advanced age in full possession of his people's affection.

Shun, immediately after his accession, paid his solemn homage to Shang-ti; and enacted those laws on which the present government of the empire is founded. Soon after his benefactor's decease he trusted his dominions to the care of his prime ministers, and continued to mourn, for the space of three years, the loss of a monarch whom he had ever loved with filial affection. But at the expiration of that time he took possession of the imperial palace, and received the homage of all his tributaries. He is said to have made an annual progress through all the provinces of his empire, in order to reward or punish the governors according to their deserts; and it is even affirmed, that, by one of his ordinances, he permitted any of his subjects to expose whatever could be pronounced blameable in his own conduct. He always honoured literary characters with his favour and protection; and possessed such unfeigned patriotism that he provided for the welfare of his people by taking Yu for his colleague in the government, to the exclusion of his own descendants. He died at the advanced age of an hundred and ten years, and was buried in the province of Shen-si; but his virtues and munificence have been immortalised

lised by the famous Confucius, and all the Chinese historians of succeeding ages.

Thus have we narrated, as concisely as possible, the ancient history of the Chinese, which, though confessedly romantic in many particulars, contains many emanations of truth, and may therefore be presented, without apology, to the curious reader.

On the demise of Shun the crown of China became hereditary in the family of Yu, and the Chinese dynasties, of which that called Hya was the first, commenced immediately upon that prince's accession. As those dynasties, therefore, still continue, the commencement of them, by an European historian, may be considered as a new epoch, at which the modern history of China will naturally begin.

END OF THE NINTH VOLUME.

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